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ABSTRACT

This course in language curriculum development has five units: (1) Language situations and policies in Africa: (2) Preparing objectives for language curriculum development: (3) Selecting and preparing materials for language curriculum development: (4) Implementing language curriculum programmes: and (5) Evaluation and renewing language curriculum programmes. It is designed to equip trainees in curriculum development with the knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary to perform curriculum development tasks. At the end of the course, the trainees will be able to: (1) analyze national policies as they relate to language use and education: (2) derive appropriate objectives for language education: (3) prepare and/or select appropriate materials to facilitate the realization of the objectives of language teaching: (4) help to implement the curriculum they have designed: (5) evaluate the materials, objectives, and content of the language curriculum: and (6) help in renewing language curriculum in the light of the first five tasks. (Author/AMH)

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AFRICAN CURRICULUM ORGANISATION (ACO)

BASIC TRAINING COURSE IN SYSTEMATIC CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

COURSE SIX:

Curriculum Development in Subject Areas: LANGUAGES

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

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AFRICAN CURRICULUM ORGANISATION

BASIC TRAINING COURSE IN SYSTEMATIC CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

COURSE SIX: CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN SUBJECT AREAS

LANGUAGES

FL 011 639

OBJECTIVES OF THE COURSE

Curriculum developers engaged in the task of language curriculum development in African Curriculum Centres are normally expected to be able to:

1. analyse national policies as they related to language use and education.
2. derive appropriate (i.e. in keeping with national needs), local conditions, realities- etc) objectives for language education from (1).
3. prepare and /or select appropriate materials (learners' text, teachers' guides, workbooks, readers, non-text aids etc.) to facilitate the realisation of the objectves of language teaching
4. help to implement (i.e. help to organise the use content and material for the improvement of learning and teaching in schools) the curriculum they have designed.
5. evaluate (i.e. continously monitor the appropriateness, effectiveness or desirability) the materials, objectives, content, etc. of the language curriculum
6. help in renewing (i.e. changing, improving, enriching etc.) language curriculum in the light of 5.

At the end of the course trainees should have been equipped with the knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary to perform the above tasks effectively.

T A B L E O F C O N T E N T S:

U N I T O N E: Language Situations and Policies in Africa

U N I T T W O: Preparing Objectives for Language Curriculum Development

U N I T T H R E E: Selecting and Preparing Materials for Language Curriculum Development

U N I T F O U R: Implementing Language Curriculum Programmes

U N I T F I V E: Evaluation and Renewing Language Curriculum Programmes

A N N O T A T E D B I B L I O G R A P H Y

AFRICAN CURRICULUM ORGANISATION

BASIC TRAINING COURSE IN SYSTEMATIC CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

COURSE SIX

UNIT 1: LANGUAGE SITUATIONS AND POLICIES IN AFRICA

U N I T O N E:

LANGUAGE SITUATIONS AND POLICIES IN AFRICA

U N I T O B J E C T I V E S:

This introductory Unit is intended to help the reader to become increasingly aware of:

(i) the nature of language as a tool for interpersonal communication

(ii) the complexity of language situations and language use in Africa.

(iii) the variety of language education policies and practices in Africa

(iv) the need to take i - iii into consideration in embarking on the task of curriculum development.

1.1. WHAT IS LANGUAGE

Language is something which we usually take for granted. We use it all the time in our everyday life yet we hardly ever stop to think about it. When we ask ourselves what we mean by language in general or a language in particular the answer does not come as easily as one might expect. Any straight definition of language that one can give needs to be qualified. "Considering human language, one distinction in the use of the team language might be made. This is the distinction between a narrow and a wider sense of the team. In its narrow sense a peoples language is usually understood as what they use in speech. In the wider sense, however, a language includes not only what is used in ordinary speech, but also what could be called paralanguage gestures and vocal sounds such as "eh" "ouch" which are beyond systematic analysis). In this course, we shall concentrate on language in its narrower sense.

Language may be defined as a convertionally organised system of units of sounds called phones used as a means of communication. Breaking up this definition to study it more closely, it says that language is a means of communication. This means that language is a tool or an instrument that people use to convey information or ideas to other people. Thus, a person, Kofi might see a bee on his neighbour Kodjo and seek to warn him of the possibility of being stung. Kofi would then tell Kodjo "There is a bee on your hair, Kodjo" has here put his message in a certain code of sounds and he has produced the sounds using speech organs (ie. the teeth, the lips the polates, the vocal,the cords etc) encoded his message. This message travels as sounds through the air to be received by Kodjo through his auditory organs (his ears) and interpreted (or decoded) to get the message therein Kodjo will then react accordingly. Kofi and Kodjo can then be said to have used a language (in this case English) to communicate!

This part of the definition tells us of the use of language. We should note that language is not necessarily always used as a means of communicating in this way. There are instances when one might say to ourself, "I must go." There is here no obvious communication of information from one person to another. Also, there are more abstract possiblities such as the use of language in thought. However, this does not negate the claim that the language is essentially a means of communication.

When we say that language is a means of communication, we have not said anything about the nature of language. Going back to our definition, we find that language is an organised system of sounds. Sounds of language, used as symbols are organised into specific current patterns for purposes of communication. The way sounds are organised in language is a basic concern of linguists (people who attempt a scientific study of language). For the purposes of study of language, organisations of investigations at various levels. These levels must be seen not as part of the patterns in language, but as heuristic devices in the attempt to understand the complexity of language. One level is the level of sounds as the material of speech. The study of speech sound is called phonetics. In phonetics, the linguist is concerned with the speech sound of language in general. This is closely related to but not the same as the study of sounds of a particular language and how they are organised for purposes of communication.

The study of the system of sounds in a particular language is phonology. Sounds of a language organised into large units of recurrent patterns. Thus, the unit of phonetics might be said to be phone. The unit of phonology is the phenomena. This is usually defined as the minimal distinctive unit in the sound system of a language. The larger units range from the word, to the sentence. In between there are the phrase and the cleanse, and below the word is a unit used in the analysis of words called morpheme. The second level, in the study of language is the study of the structure of the words. This is known as Morphology. The third level is known as Syntax which is concerned with how words of a language is organised into the larger units especially the sentence. The final level in language is known as semantics which is concerned with meaning.

One other term in our original definition deserves to be elaborated upon. We say that the sounds of language are conventionally organised. This touches on one characteristic of human language, namely that sounds of human language are arbitrary and arbitrarily organised. Simply this says that for example there is no natural 'relationship between a word and its meaning.' It is as if by agreement of all the people who speak a language that the word head has the meaning it has in English.

There are minimal exceptions here in anomatopoecia where there is some observable natural relationships between the sound and its meaning.

Languages are very complex systems of symbols and rules. No language can be said to be simple. In the same way no language inferior or superior to any other language. The people who speak a language use it to express all they need. each language is therefore adequate to those who use it. If there are new ideas or experiences that a language has

no expressions for, from the need, the relevant expressions or words will develop to cope with the new situation. So, for example, if in a peoples way of life, they do not know of aeroplanes, or they have no need to talk about them, they will not have any word for aeroplane. As soon as this situation changes, and aeroplanes become relavant to the peoples' life, the necessary words will either be coined or borrowed from another langauge and adapted.

Althouge language is complex every normal child is able to acquire any language to which he is exposed. In fact, if a child is exposed to two languages at the same time she will master both. Because of this, it has been suggested that human beings are born with a device for acquiring language (Language Acquisition Device or LAD). This suggestion has been supported by for example, the fact that even animals which demonstrate their intelligence in other areas are unable to show that they can learn a language.

THE STRUCTURE OF LANGUAGE AND THE USE OF LANGUAGE

There is a difference between the structure of language and the use of language when we say we know a language. What do we mean? We do not mean our memories a list of sentences and their meanings os we can reproduce them in appropriate situations. We know a language when we have acquired the set of rules which might be referred to as the '<u>grammar</u>' of the language. This set of rules or principles relate organised sound to meaning. We mster the rules of a language, and then are set of rules widely or guide our use of the language. We say we <u>acquire</u> the system of rules of

language rather than learn it because we do not necessarily need to be evenly unaware of the rules before we can be said to know. It is required correctly and it constitutes a choice to help use use the language correctly and judge what is correct or not. This facis knowledge of a languuage is called lingustic competence. It accounts for a person's ability to utter and understand utterances of a language. It is what a speaker of a language knows facitly that grammarian seeks to acquire consciously. There is no one to one relationship between our use of a language and the facit knowledge of it that are possessed. This is to say that when we speak or write, we operate with other non-linguistic constraints which make us commit errors and mistakes. We have no problem in knowing what or what we utter is not part of the language as we know it. For example, when we speak, we might break up sentences in the middle to cough or to think of the next part we may repeat ourselves etc. yet we still can recognise an example sentence that is correct in the language, when a person starts.

I was talking to Jane on - stop it
I was talking to Jane on the phone.

We know that stop it is an interruption. The structure that includes it is not part of our competence. This is a matter of what is known as performance. Performance is our use of language in specific concrete situations.

In summary, we may say that every language has an internal structure of a limited set of rules. Those rules are finite and they make up competence. Whether we are aware of it or not, when we know a language, we possess the set or rules of the language. What we can produce from the set of rules is part of our linguistic performance, and it is infinite. Speakers of a language are capable of always producing and understanding utterances they have never used or heard before.

CORRECT AND INCORRECT LANGUAGE

We have said that linguistic competence enables speakers of a language to use the language correctly. The notion of correctness here must be clearly understood. What is correct in any language is what the linguist or anybody else says is correct. So in language study, we can only describe what the speakers of the language speak, we cannot prescribe to them what they should speak.

VARIETIES OF LANGUAGE

Language is used by people in a Society. The people who speak a language form a speech community. Members of a speech community share the competence of the language they speak. This is why they are able to use infinite structures of the language. Dholuo, for example is spoken by the Luo speech community. Speech community is spread all round the world. Within any speech community there are variations which can be recognised at various levels. First there are regional varieties of languages. These are called dialect For example, listening to an Englishman and an American, it is not difficult to observe that there are differences in their language even though we similarly have not differently realised that they both speak English. So we recognise that the two speak two different dialects of the same language.

It can be observed that every individual speaker of a language operates with certain specific limitations, physical and social. Thus an individual might have a thick tongue that somehow harpers his speech, then there might have a stammer. Such have a bearing on the way he speaks. The individual variety of speech is called his idiolect

The purpose for which a language is used also creates varieties of the language. Thus the English used in law in legal documents or in law courts differ from the English used in the religious sermons in the bible. Such varieties are called register. So we talk of legal register.

Further, every speaker of a language can be observed to speak differently to different people in different situations. Thus a man talking to his child does not speak the same way he would speak to his superiors, say at an interview. Such varieties, are part of what is known as style.

Besides all these varieties, there is usually a variety of a language which is somehow the model for all. In language learning and language teaching people would be making an attempt to acquire this variety. Such a variety is called the standard variety. Thence although there are many dialects of English in Britain as a whole, there is standard English which is that variety that is used in broadcasting in language publications etc.

LANGUAGE CHANGE

Language is a social instrument used by social beings for communcation. They are not stagnant. Instead they are constantly changing, even though speakers may not notice it. Language change is effected by various factors. For e ample, when two speech communities interact, there is osund to ber cultural inlfuences and this includes linguistic influences. Their language will affect one another. A major part of this influcence is in borrowing and lending where as it were a language adopts words or expressions of another language such borrowed words andeterms gets, slowly integrated into the languages they are borrowed from.

However linguists can study these and such a study can be found useful for example in the study of the language of a people.

LANGUAGE AND SYMBOLS

Speech is the primary medium of primary language. As has been said, the units of language are sound units. These must be seen as symbols that are used in a certain way to represent meaning. Phonetics is the study of these symbols and phoneticians have worked out a phonetic alphabet which attempts to isolate address by all the sound units that can occur in all languages.

Besides speech, language can be written. In writing, an attempt is made to represent language using specific symbols agreed upon. Such symbols constitute the alphabet, and the way every langauge relates the phonetic alphabet to the writing one is a skill that requires a good understanding of how language works in general and how a particular language organises its sounds. Because of various constraints, not all that is avaialble in speech can be represented in writing.

LANGUAGE SKILLS

The use of language could be looked at from the point of a view of the skills involved. Thus we can observe that there are two basic media for languages. These are speech and writing. In speech, language learners develop the skill of speech itself - the act of articulation and the choice of language in encoding the necessary messages. Langaage learners must learn to be articulate. Secondly is the skill of listening, and understanding what is heard. These two skills in oral language is parallel to those of writing langauge and reading. In writing like reading, the goals is to comprehence what is read. All these skills manifest themselves in performance and depend on competence.

1.2. THE LANGUAGE SITUATION IN AFRICA

I N T R O D U C T I O N

It is important for the language curriculum developer to have an adequate knowledge of language and its properties. But this in itself is not a sufficient condition for the understanding of language as a human phenomenon. Like all human phenomenon, language is deeply rooted in a given historical, social, cultural, geographical and political set up.

It is therefore necessary for the language curriculum developer to be able to situate language within this broader framework. This fundamental truth cannot be sufficiently stressed when one remembers the complexity of the African language situation. The brutal dismantling of Africa by colonialism without reagard to narually evolved linguistic and cultural boundaries has resulted in the establishment of arbitrary frontiers which suited the needs and interests of the colonial powers. Consequently, today, a situation characterised by linguistic heterrogenity an by dominant presence of a European language.

A DESCRIPTION OF THE LANGUAGE SITUATION IN AFRICA

The following extensive quotation from Pierre Alexandre

"An introduction to language and language in Africa" paints and excellent picture of the languages situations in Africa. Before looking at table 1, (which is Alexandre's summary of the situation) the reader should look carefully at the following notes.

(a) The first name given for a language or a group, or for each language of a group, is the one most oftenly found in technical literature. Following, and in parentheses, are the "popular" or "journalistic" names, then, in italics, comes the transcription of the vernacular names of the language. In showing the principal "popular" names, I have generally not resorted to any kinds of decorative varieties introduced to provide exotic spice or pseudoscientific weight, as for instance, "Peuhl," "Peulb, etc.

(b) The geographical regions are defined broadly by the rather vague terminology currently used:

WA: West African, divided into the Sudanic and forest (or Guinean) zones (in brief, the coastal zone, which is partially forested)

AE: Equatorial Africa, divided into Western (Atlantic side), marked W, and Central (the Congo Basin and the Great Lakes), marked C.

CA: Central Africa, from the Chad Basin to the Nile

EA: East Africa

SA: South Africa

Next are given the countries where the language is currently spoken

(c) The number of speakers is estimated roughly in millions or decimal fractions of a million. Indeed, although we sometimes have a rather precise idea of the number of persons speaking a given language as their mother tongue, we are more often obliged to guess, more or less scientifically, at the total number of those who use it as a second or auxilliary language.

(d) The reference to "classification" indicates the position the language occupies in the classifications of Delafosse (French), Westerman (German and English), and Greenberg (American), symbolised (you will guess it) by D. W. and G. The sign "T", which appears one or twice, is a reference to Professor A. N. Tucker of London, who is currently engaged in revising and completing Westerman's study:

TABLE ONE:

PICTURE OF THE LANGUAGE SITUATION IN AFRICA (AFTER ALEXANDER)

NO. OF LANGUAGE GROUP	GEOGRAPHICAL ZONE	NO. OF SPEAKERS	CLASSIFICATION
1. Akan: *Twi-Fante Anyi-Baule (Agni-Baule	Guinean WA: Ghana, Ivory Coast	3M +	D: Eburno-Dahomean W: Kwa D: Kwa
2. Bini-Edo* (Benin), edo	Guinean WA: Nigeria (Midwest)	O.8M +	D: Nigero-Cameroonian W: Kwa G: Kwa
3. Chokwe-Lunda*	AE (W.C.): Congo-K	1M	D.W. Bantu
4. Chokwe,Cilunda	Angola, Zambia		G: Benue-Congo
5. Efik-Ibibio (Calabar)	Guinean WA: E Nigeria (Niger-Delta)	1M	D: Negero-Cameroonian W: Isolated non-class"
6. Ewe (Ehoue), Evegbe	Guineans WA: Dahomey, Togo,Ghana	1.5M	D: Eburno-Dahomean W: Kwa G: Kwa
* Indicates a group			
7. "Pahouin"*	AE (W) Cameroon,	1.5M +	D.W. Bantu
8. Ewondo Yaounde	Gabon, Rio Muni		G: Benue-Congo
9. -Bulu - Fan (Fang, Pahouin)			
10. Ganda (luGanda)	Uganda	2M	D.W. Bantu G: Benue-Congo
11. Hausa (Haussa)	Sudanic WA Nigeria, Niger and isolated in all towns of Sudanic West Africa	10M	D:Nigero-Chadic W:Chado-Hamitic W:Chado-Hamitic G: Afro-Asitic E

NO. OF LANGUAGE GROUP	GEOGRAPHICAL ZONE	NO. OF SPEAKERS	CLASSIFICATION
12. Igbo (Ibo	Guinean WA E. Nigeria	3.5 M	D: Nigero-Cameroonian
13. Kanuri (Kanouri Bornuan	CA: N. Nigeria Chad,(around L. Chad	2 M	W.G. Kwa D: Nilo-Chadic W: Hinterland Sudan (T.E. G: Nilo-Saharan (Lower)
14. Kikuyu (IGikuyu)	E.A. Kenya	1.8M+ 0.5M (Embu,Meru)	D.E. Bantu G. Benue-Congo
15. Kisii-Temne*	Guinean WA: Guinea Liberia, Siera-Leone	Kisii: 0.25M Bulom-Sherbo: 0.20 M Temne: 0.5M	D: Senegalo- W. West Atlantic G: West Atlantic
17. Kongo (Congo), Kikongo	AE (W,C): Congo K, Congo-Brazzaville Angola	2M +	D.W. Bantu G: Beneu-Congo
18. Kru* (Kroo): Bete, Grebo, Basa	Guinean WA: Liberia Ivory Coast	25M?	D:Eburno-Liberian W: Kru G: Kwa
19. Lingala (Bangala)	AE (C); Congo-K Congo-Brazzaville Central-Africa Republic	1.5M	D.W: Bantu G: Beneu-Congo
*Indicates a group			
20. Luca (Baluba), Ciluba	AE (C): Congo-K (Kasai, Katanga) Zambia	1.5	D.W. Bantu G: Benua-Congo
21. Luhya, Luluhya	EA: Ugand, Kenya	0.8M	D.W. Bantu G: Beneu-Congo
22. Two* (Luo): Luo, Shilluk, Acholi,	CA: Southern Sudan, Ethiopia, Uganda, Congo-K, Kenya Tanganyika	2M+ of which 1M for Luo	D: Nilo-Abyssinian W: Nilotic G:Nilo-Sharan E.A.
23. Mande-Fu* Susu Mende-Kpelle (Guerze)-Loma etc.	Guinean WA: Guinean Liberia, Sierra-Leone Ivory Coast	6M + Mende, 0.5	D: Nigero-Senegalese W.G. Mande

NO. OF LANGUAGE GROUP*	GEOGRAPHICAL ZONE	NO. OF	CLASSIFICATION
24. Subgroup: Mande Tan (Mandigo, Mandika) Malinke-Bambara-Dyula, Khasonke, etc	WA: Western Sudan-Senegal, Mali Gambia, Ivory Coast, Guinea, Upper Volta Ghana, Sierra-Leone (Ancient Mali empire), Liberia	6M +	D: Niggro-Senegalese W.G. Mande
25. Mossi (Moshi)	Sudanic WA: Upper Volta, N. Togo, N.E. Ghana	2M	D: Voltaic W: Gur G: Gur or Voltaic
26. Nguni*Zulu	SA Republic of South	2M +	D:W: Bantu
27. Xhoa, Swazi	Africa, Rhodesia	2.5M +	G: Beneu-Congo
28. Isi Zulu, Isi Xhosa Isi Swati	Africa-Rhodesia Zambia, Mozambique	2.5M + O.25M	G: Benue-Congo
29. Nupe	Sudanic WA: N. Nigeria	O.5M	D: Nigero-Cameroon an W.G. Kwa
30. Nyanja-Cewa	EA: Malawi	1M	D.W. Bantu
31. CiNyanja, ciCewa	Mozambique Rhodesia Zambia		D.G. Beneu-Congo
32. Fula(Full,Peul, Fulani Toucouleur, etc) Fulfulde	WA (C) Western and cebtral Sudan from Senegal to the Nile: esp. Senegal Guinea, Mali Upper Volta, Niger, Nigeria, Cameroon.	5M +	D. Senegal-Guinean W.G. West Atlantic
33. Ronga-Tsonga	SA: Mozambique	1.25M	D.W. Bantu
34. (Thong)Sironga siTsonga	Rhodesia, Republic of South Africa		G. Benue-Congo
*Indicate a group			
35. Rwanda-Urundi	EA: Rwanda,	5M	D.W. Bantu
36. Runyarwanda IkiRundi	Burundi, Congo-K Uganda, Tanganyika		G. Benue-Congo
37. Sango (Songo, Sangho)	CA: Central African Republic, South Chad	1.5M	D: Ubangian W. Nigeritic
38. Senufo (Senoufu)	Sudanic WA: Upper Ivory Coast, N. Ghana Upper Volta, Mali	1M	D. Voltaic W. Gur G. Gur or Volta

NO. OF LANGUAGE GROUP	GEOGRAPHICAL ZONE	NO. OF SPEAKERS	CLASSIFICATION
39. Shona (Chishona)	EA: Mozambique, Rhodesia		D.W. Bantu G: Benue-Congo
40. Songhai, (Sonray, Songoi), Dielect Jerma, Dendi	WA: Western, Sudan Niger Valley: Mali Upper Volta, Niger N. Dahomey N. Nigeria	1 M +	D: Nigero-Senegalese W: Songhai G: Nilo-Saharan A
41. Sotho-Tswana	SA: Lesotho, Botswana	3.5M +	D.W. Bantu
42. seSotho, seTswana	Republic of South Africa	0.9 M	G: Benue-Congo
43. Sukuma-Nyamwezi	EA: Tanganyika	0.9 +	D.W. Bantu
44. kiSukuma kiNyamwezi		0.4M	G. Benue-Congo
45. Swahili, kiSwahili	EA: Comoro Islands Tanganyika, Zanzibar Kenya, Somali CA: Congo-K Uganda, Zambia	12 to 15M	D.W. Bantu G. Benue-Congo
46. Tiv. (Munshi)	N. Nigeria (Lower Beneu	1M	D. Nigero-Cameroonian W. Isloated class language G: Benue-Congo
47. Umbundu Quimbundo uMbundi	SA (W) Angola	1.5M	D.W. Bantu G. Benue-Congo
48. Wolof (Valafw)	WA: Coastal Sudan Senegal, Gambia	1.5M	D. Senegalo-Guinean W.G. West Atlantic
*Indicates a group			
49. Yao-Makonde	EA: Tanzania	0.5 +	D.W. Bantu
50. ciYao, ciMakonde	Mozambique, Malawi	0.3 + 0.15 (Neighbouring languages)	G: Beneu-Congo

NO. OF LANGUAGE GROUP	GEOGRAPHICAL ZONE	NO. OF SPEAKERS	CLASSIFICATION
51. Yoruba, Yoruba	Guinean WA: W. Nigeria, Dahomey, Togo	5 M +	D. Nigero-Cameroonian W. Kwa G: Kwa
52. Zande (Azande) Pazande	CA: Southern Sudan Congo-K, Central African Republic	+M	D: Ubangian W: Nigritic G. Adamawa-Eastern

THE LANGUAGE SITUATION WITHIN THE AFRICAN STATES

The map that follows shows the major languages used in various countries of Africa. Pierre Alexander's work (opposite) has been very useful in compiling the map.

LANGUAGE POLICIES

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Generally speaking, colonial language policies in Africa were of two types.

- the Anglo German colonial powers rended to favour the use of Africa
- languages in various spheres (the schooling system, for example)
- the Latin powers tended to impose exclusive use and diffusion of their own languges:

However, it is important to bear in mind that in spite of these diametically opposed policies the colonial powers differed only on the means to advice their ends which were fundamentally the same.

Furthermore the labels currently used to divide Africa into * "French-Speaking "English-Speaking "etc are particularly misleading since the number of African able themselves in these two languages represent less than 10 per cent of Africa's population.

LANGUAGE POLICIES IN INDEPENDENT AFRICA

Generally speaking, Independent Africa, with a few notable exception has not gone through any major shift in language policies from the colonial inheritance. To quote Das Gupta

"Most developing countries of Asia and Africa have experienced a certain dualism in the attitude to national language selection revealed by the ruling elites. Immediately after independence the national elite's concern for displacing alien language was softened. Gradually the promised time for displacement was delayed despecially in those sectors of language use where elite interests were at stake. Even when laws were enacted to encourage the use of national languages, the purpose

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was more to satisfy persistent demands by formal provisions than to make sure the use of colonial language be actually displaced at the higher levels of administration education technology, law and business.

1.3. LANGUAGE USE IN VARIOUS AFRICAN SOCIETIES

This section will focus on the factors which affect peoples' use of language in most human communities. Particular emphasis will be placed on the general picture of language use in Africa South of Shara.

Factors which Influence Language Use

Two main groups of factors tend to influence the language which pwople use and how they use it. These are individual and societal factors. The two sets of factors are inter-related and seem to complement each other. Languages are used by individuals who live in societies. Like any other aspect of human behaviour the type of language that people use is dictated by societal norms.

Individual Factors

The most important individual factors which influence the type of language which a person uses are:

(i) The degree of the individual's competence in the various skills of a given langugae;
(ii) The relationship between the individual and the person(s) with whom he is using as a language.
(iii) The subject of discourse (i.e. the topic on which converstaion or discussion is focussed.
(iv) The individual's level of education, and
(v) The individual's social status.

It is possible for someone to speak a language very fluently without being able to write it. This is the case with most people who have not been to school. It is also the case with most Africans who have been to school who speak their mother tongues but do all their reading and writing in English or French. There are also cases of persons who studied Latin in secondary schools or of scientists who study some of the most widely used languages of the world (English, French, German, Russian, etc) only to be able to read

scientific publications in these languages. These are of course persons who have acquired the four basic skills (listening), speaking, reading, and writing. Of these languages they make people in the last category use all the skills of their languages. These in the first, second, and third categories will have their language use restricted only to those language skills they can manipulate.

Relationships between two speakers can be friendly or not friendly. It can be formal or informal. In most cases human relations lie along varying degrees of formality-informality. The degree and type of relationships determine to a large extent what language they use in speaking with one another and what type of each language they use. For example, two persons who are meeting for the first time would most possibly be formal in their languages use, as in the following conversation.

Mr. A. I suppose you are Mr. Sentamu, I am very pleased to meet you.

Mr. B. I am pleased to meet you too. You are Mr. Kwansa, aren't you?

As the two men become more familiar the language they use for communication could become less formal as in the following example:

Mr. A. Hi, Dan, you're coming?

Mr. B. Ya, Man, wait for me man.

Sometimes it is <u>the situation</u> and not the persons who are talking that is formal. For example, the opening ceremony of a conference is a fromal situation while coffee-break discussion between two conference participants is not. In the first situation therefore the language used would be more formal then would be the case in the second situation.

Every subject of discourse calls for a peculiar use of language. Someone talking about football match, for example, will not use the same type of language as someone describing a scientific experiment. The type of language considered as appropriate to one subject of discourse (a phenomenon explained in 1.1. as LANGUAGE REGISTER) may not be appropriate to another subject of discourse.

An individual speaker's level of education generally determines what skills of a language be can manipulate. For example, someone who has not been to school may not know how to read or write his language. Someone who has spent only a few years in school may read or write his language. Someone who has spent only a few years in school may read and write his language only to a limited extent. An individual's social status determines, to a large extent what roles he plays in society. Each social role tends to go with a particular type of language behaviour. Members of a social group (chiefs, school boys, labourers etc.) tend to use the same type of language,and as long as a person is functioning within his social group, he will be using the type of language considered appropriate by the group.

Societal Factors

The following are the most important societal factors which affect the languages (and the type of languages) used by the members of different societies:

(i) The language (ordialects) which exist in the community. (Or in close geographical or cultural proximity with the community) and the relative prestige of each language.
(ii) Demographic factors
(iii) Educational factors
(iv) Historical and cultural factors.
(v) Official policies

As was earlier explained (see 1.1.) homogenous communities have a single language but most languages have a number of dialects. It most cases one of the dialects is used in schools, in the mass media, or by people considered as elites in the community. Most members of the community who have been through schools who are interacting with the elite class, or who would want to be considered as elites themselves, would use that dialect that is considered morepresti gious. In most cases a person of the same geographical anc cultural background would use the same dialect of their language among thelselves. While interacting with other users of the same language who speak other dialects they would try to find a common bases for communication usually the dialect that is more easily understood commonly. In bilinqual (and mul-lingual) communities one language may be more prestigious than others and so will likely be used by a large number of people. Sometimes people in one community learn and use the language of their neighbours. This they do for a a variety of reasons. They may trade with members of neighbouring communities. They may be a small community who need to learn otehr languages,to be able to communicate with the wider world etc.

In mixed communities demographic factors (i.e. the number and speed of persons) could determine the way language is used in each community. Sometimes it is the language of the majority that is most commonly used. At other times the language most commonly used may be the most prestigious one of the one taught in schools.

Schools have a great deal of influence on the language used by specific communities. Where a particular language is taught in schools, particularly when such a language tend to be used more oftenly by those who have passed through the formal school system. Where a community uses a single language (i.e. when the society is MONOLINGUAL) it is the dialect of the school that tend to be the dominant dialect.

The mass media (radio, newspapers, television etc.) also helps to promote the use fo certain language (in mixed communities) and of particular dialects of a language (in monolingual communities). The languages in which programmes are broadcast, and in which newspapers are publiched, determine to a large extent what languages people use in listening, speaking, reading and writing. The absence of radio and television programmes (and of newspapers and books) in some languages could lead to a failure in the use of such languages.

Historical and cultural factors influence language use in a variety of ways. There are cases or conquered people who have had the languages of their conquerors or colonisers imposed on them. There are able cases in which people use certain languages because of some religious or cultural associations. Official policies (in terms of givernments deciding what language should be used in a Guku Society) is in most cases, influenced by the other factors already discussed - demographic education, histrocial, and cultural factors. There are cases when official language polities are "engineered" (i.e. careful plans are made to spread the use of specific languages before such languages are officially declared to be used. In other official policies may be simply decreed. Engineered official policies tend to pose fewer problems than decreed policies.

Patterns of Language Use in African Societies

Most societies in Africa have come under the influence of colonialism. In nearly all the cases the language of the ex-coloniser is the official language of the country. Thus, linguistically speaking African countries are divided into four zones viz:

(i) The English-speaking (Anglophone) Zone:
The Gambia, Liberia, Sierra-Leone, Ghana, Nigeria, Kenya, Uganda, Kenya, Zambia, Tanzania, Malawi, Lesotho, Botswana, Swaziland.

(ii) The French-speaking (Francophone) Zone:

Mauritania, Senegal, Guinea, Mali, Ivory Coast, Upper Volta, Niger, Chad, Gabon, Congo, Zaire Rwanda Burundi, Madagascar, Comoros Reunion.

(iii) Bilingual (French-English) Countries:
Cameroon, Mauritius, Seychelles

(iv) Spanish/Portuguese - Speaking (Lusitophone) Countries:
Equatorial Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Cape Verde, Angola and Mozambique.

In each zone the official language is the main language of the schools, of business of the mass-media, and of the administration. In other situation people speak other languages.

There are countries which do not fit properly into such wate-light soning models. Ethiopia, for example, uses Amharic as an official language, Somalia, uses Somali, while Tanzania uses Kiswahili. Ethiopia was never colonised but to understant the pattern of language use in Africa more fully we have to examine another model which is the linguistic homogeneity/hetregeneity of the various countries of Africa.

Following this model one can classify African countries as follows:

(i) Unilingual Countries or Countries with dorminant Languages

Somali, Madagascar, Ethiopia, Lesotho

(ii) Countries with widespread:

Gambia, Sierra-Leone

Area Languages, Pidgins, or Creele

Mauritius, Congo, Zaire, Tanzania, Kenya, Seychelles, Mali, Guinea etc.

Multilingual communities form the largest bulk of African countries. In the first group of countries the dominant language (or the only language) is the official language as well as the language used in private affairs. Countries of the second group usually have a European language as the official language but the area language (or pidgin or creole) is widely used by persons of different mother tongue background. Most people in Mauritius speak English, French (the official language) in the formal and official situations. The creole language of Sierra-Leone and the Gambia is ised as mother tongue by about half a million people of people in these countries who are of different language background. Other native language background are Haussa (Banbara, Wolof) (West Africa), Duala Shango and Lingala (Central Africa), and Kiswahili (East and Central Africa). Hiswahili is the official language in Tanzania as well as one of the official languages in Zaire and Kenya. Lingala is also an official language of Zaire.

In the multilingual countries of Africa, it is more difficult to have an indeginous language as the official language.

In such situations every individual tends to use his language among members of his own language group. With people from other groups he will use the country's official language. There are of course persons in such countries who can use two or more indeginous languages, which is nearly the same case and influence. Such people would adapt their language use. There are also cases that some languages a more developed than others. Languages like Hausa, Yoruba, Igbo, Ca, Fante, Luganda, Shona, etc. have been used in education for sometime. Reading materials exist in them, they are used for Christian religious worships; and do more people are exposed to them and use them more frequently.

Almost everywhere in Africa the languages spoken in and around the capital cities, the parts industrial and mining areas, tend to spread easily. This is mainly because those who can come to such places in search of employment and other economic opportunities would have to learn the languges of the areas.

There is a high incidence of bilibgualism and diglossia in Africa. People who are dialossia use different dialects of the same language while people who are bilingual use two or more languages. Those Africans who have been to school would use their native languages as well as the official language. The choice language or dialect would depend on the activity invoice, the relationship between the discussants, and so on.

Relatives and close friends who share a common indegenous language will probably use this among themselves. Depending on the speakers, level of education and the subject of discourse, bits of the official European language will inflirate into a discussion in the native language to varying degrees. Sometimes English or French words will find their way into a speech in Eve, Duala, or Shona. In some cases this is the result of habit.

In other cases, it is because the concept being discussed has no equivalent in the mother tongue. It is not uncommon, because of the high incidence of bilingualism among Africans, to find people Code Switching (i.e. switching between one language and another in the course of the same conversation). The language can be used for the activity concerned. Thus most Africans will count in English or French will talk to their parent in the native language, but will write letters to their parents in English or French.

The European-derived official languages of Africa, English French, Portuguese and Spanish have undergone all sorts of changes in Africa. In matters of accent (ie. speech habits peculiar to a speech community) each of these languages have had African stamps affixed to them. One can easily distinguish, for example between East African and West African varieties (or accents) of spoken English or between the educated varsities of these languages are of course mutually intellgible i.e. easily understood by all those who use them).

Benions French and Senegalese French. These varsities have developed as a result of the influence of specific groups of native languages on the European language. In some cases the major influence has been the dialect of English, French, Portuguese, or Spanish used by the early Missionary teachers of these languages.

In matters of vocabulary, African usage of European derived official languages also differ a little from the original languages. New words have been borrowed in certain cases, and proverbs and expressions in African languages have been transferred wholesale into English or French. Such coinages translations (i.e. word-for-word translations), and inventious have been given special flavour to scuh creative works and have given them linguistic and literary characteristics that may be said to be purely Africar

1.4. LANGUAGE IN EDUCATION IN VARIOUS AFRICAN SOCIETIES

Language in education can mean either or both of two things - language as a school subject and language as a vehicle of . This section will discuss the two aspects of the question with particular reference to the Africa region.

Factors which have affected language in Education in African societies

Four main factors have influenced the languages taught in African schools as well as the language used for instruction in these schools. Perhaps the most important of these have been historical factors, linked closely with the colonial experience of individual African countries. The colonial experience also linked with the existence of the major linguistic zones discussed in section 1.3. In most of the anglophone zone of Africa, English (the official language) is the language of instruction from the upper primary classes to the highest wrungs of the educational ladder. At the same time a number of indeginious languages are taught as school subjects in various stages of education. In the early years of education the child's mother tongue (or area language is the language of instruction in all subjects, in most cases . In the Francophone and Anglophone zones, on the other hand, the official language is used for instruction from the first day at school. The difference in the emphasis given to ind genous language was largely dictated by the practice of colonial governments. While British colonial education policy encouraged the use of African languages used in English-speaking zone have become "more developed" than those used in the other language zones.

Closely linked to historical factors are cultural factors. There are many parts of Africa (the Sahelian region of West Africa and the coastal areas of Eastern Africa, for example) where Islam has had a great deal of impact. In most of these areas Islam has affected the ways of life of the people (i.e. the people's culture).

School in such areas have consequently tended to teach Arabic in schools. Again the emphasis placed on Arabic in the schools has tended to vary from one part of the continent to another. The emphasis is, generally, sepaking, greater in the English-speaking areas that in the case in the other areas. In those societies which claim close cultural and genetic affirmity with the Arab world (Mauritania, Sudan, Somalia) the emphasis placed on the Arabic language is greater still. In such societies Arabic is taught really as a language for religious worship.

In deciding which African languages to use in education (or whether African languages should be used at all) demographic factors have had some influence. Generally speaking, those languages that are used by a fairly large number of people (say, half a million upwards) have been taught in schools in many places. On the other hand, there are many African languages which are used only by a few thousand persons. Most of such languages have, generally speaking, not been used in education, even if encouraged. The main area languages of Africa (Kiswahili, Huasa, etc) have found it easier to get into the school system because they are used by millions of people.

Nationalism has in many places influenced the use of national languages in education, or, at least, the demand for their use. African leaders have since independence, seen the promotion of Africa languages as a means of promoting cultural and national identity. Most African nations now recognise the need to promote African languages in schools. Several UNESCO - sponsored conference have been devoted to this topic. Progress towards the realisation of the goal has however been very slow. In many cases, particularly in the Francophone states (except Madagascar) education in indegenous languages have in fact not taken off at all.

The need international co-operation and international understandings has been felt by African states since the early 1960's. Regional and sub-regional organisations (OA, ECA, ECOWAS, OCAM, etc) have been set up on the continent. The lack of a common language has tended to hamper the efficient functioning of these organisations. Sometimes the organisations work within members of the same European-derived official language group only (e.g. the Conference of Ministers of Education of Francophone African states etc.). African states which are geographically and culturally contigeous have found they cannot co-operate with each other because they use two different official languages. It is for these reasons that efforts have been made to teach English in the secondary schools in French speaking countries and French in the English-speaking countries of Africa. The Portuguese-speaking countries have recently (1979) resolved to intesnsify the teaching of English in schools. This is mainly because the immediate neighbours of such countries are English-speaking and because of the importance of English itself as a language of wider communication.

Wider Problems of Language in Education in Africa

Perhaps the most serious problem of language education in Africa is that of having to teach in a language that is different from that of the immediate environment. African educationists are becoming increasingly aware of the need to ensure that the African child learns in school by making him study his school subjects in the language he actually understands. As things are at the moment most African school children have to cope with the double tas of mastering the language of instruction in addition to mastering subject-matter. In most cases what is seen as academic failure (i.e. the inability to perform satisfactorily in school subjects) is in fact linguistic failure, in the sense that the child's major problem is insufficient or inadequate mastery of the tool for the transmission of knowledge in schools (i.e. a European - derived official language).

Researchers at the University of Ife in Nigeria are currently working on project (known as the Ife Six-Year Primary Project) which is aimed at tackling the problem just highlighted. The project children are being taught the basic school subjects in Yoruba (their mother tongue) while English is being taught as a subject. Those in charge of the project believe that, the end of primary education, the learners would have a deeper understanding of basic school subjects while transferring to English as medium of instruction at post primary level will not be difficult for them. This project can be replaced in other parts of Africa.

The teaching of indegenous languages in Africa is an enterprise which is plagued by a lot of problems. Many of the languages used in many African communities are yet to be reduced into writing. In most cases the basic research on the linguistic description of languages are yet to be translated into padagogical and curriculum materials.

In some cases existing orthographies have been found unsuitable. There have been orthographic reforms in several places (e.g. the reform of Igbo and Yoruba orthgraphy in Nigeria but such reforms are yet to be undertaken on a wider scale. There are even cases in which African do not seem to see the need for teaching African languages in schools. Their arguments are

(i) that children use these languages every time and so do not need to be taught to use them, and

(ii) that instruction in the mother tongue will cut millions of children off from the languages of wider communication like English and French.

Even in those which have long tradition of teaching the mother tongue is schools (e.g. Nigeria, Ghana, Uganda) there is an accute dearth of personnel and materials for teaching. Moreover, children (especially secondary school pupils) do not appear to be favourably disposed towards the study of African languages.

With the teaching of European languages the major problem is thelack of link between the home, the community and the school. While such languages may the language of the school they are hardly used in the community and in the child's home. The learner has therefore no sources of reinforcement of the language learnt in school. Added to this is the problem of general lack of personnel and resources for language teaching.

1.5. IMPLICATIONS OF THE DISCUSSION IN THIS UNIT FOR LANGUAGE CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

All curriculum development efforts begin with situational analysis. Every curriculum developer the conditions under which he/she is working to enable him/her plan adequately, to know what resources to use and how to use them , to anticipate problems and to work out approriate solutions.

With particular reference to language education, it is necessary for the curriculum developer to understand the language situations in his country and to be able to analyse the forces which interact to determine language use and language education policies. He also needs to understand those forces which would tend to facilitate or inhibit language curriculum development in his country. This understanding will make the work of curriculum developer easier.

Most of the users of this book will be engaged in translating national language education polcies into "teachable" materials, processes, etc. Some may have to develop curriculum for "new" languages (languages that were not previously taught in schools, or for which an orthography does not previously taught in schools, or for which an orthography does not even exist). Others may be involved in evaluating and revising existing curricula. Yet others may be involved in language curriculum development for specific purpose (e.g. a particular language primary/secondary education, a particular language for use in specific subject areas, etc). In any and all of such tasks a deep understanding of the language situation in one's environment is a sine-qua-non.

AFRICAN CURRICULUM ORGANISATION
(ACO)

BAISC TRAINING COURSE IN SYSTEMSTIC
CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

COURSE SIX

UNIT TWO: PREPARING OBJECTIVES FOR LANGUAGE CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

UNIT OBJECTIVES:

The Unit is intended to help the learner:

1. Identify the sources of objectives for language curriculum development
2. Derive appropraite objectives for curriculum development in language at different levels of the formal school system.
3. Distinguish clearly between different types of educational objectives with particular reference to language education
4. Write objectives of language curriculum development meaningfully

2.1.0. SOURCE OF OBJECTIVES OF LANGUAGE CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

2.1.1. THE LANGUAGE (S) TO BE TAUGHT

A fundamental hustion: is the particular language for which a curriculum has to be prepared the mother tongue of the pupil an area language. The official language or a totally foregin language?

We shall outline some of the main factors that have to be taken into account in each case:

- The Mother Tongue
  - Its range of diffusion (is it the language of a socialised group or is it also an area language (Lingua Franca) with a wider regional diffusion?
  - Its official status (has it any official recognition within an outline national language policy?
  - Does it possess a writing system?
  - If yes, is it used as a literacy medium?
  - When was it introduced in the school curriculum and for what purpose?
  - What are its pedagogical functions (access to the writing skill, subject of study, medium of instruction.

- The Area Language
  Is it acquired naturally through the environment or learned in a formal setting.
- Does it cut across stata coundaries?
- Its official status
- When was it introduced in schools?
- Its pedagogical functions

- The Official Language
  - Does it coincide with the pupils mother-tongue, or with an area language?

- It is used as a first language within the community.
- Is it the language of the media (press to cinema etc)
- Is it used as a literary medium within the country?
- Is pedagogial functions.

A Document: Resolution of the First Conference of Zairian Linguists held in 1979

*We, the Zairian linguists, meeting here from May 22-26 (1974) consdiering (i) the importance of the teaching of and in Zairian languages in elementary and secondary school: (ii) the policy of the return to Zairian authenticity and (iii) the present state of affairs in the area of Zairian languages, make the following proposals:

(i) Concerning the elementary school level:

(a) that teaching be carried out in Zairian languages which will serve as the media of instruction for all the subjects taught from the first till the sixth grade:

(b) that the Zairian languages begin serving as the media of instruction starting with the 1974-1975 academic year and the following year they be introduced in the second grade, and so on progressively until the the extinction of the present system (of using French as the medium of instruction);

(c) that the inter-regional language, i.e. the dominant language of the region where the school is located be chosen as the medium of instruction:

(d) that the Zairian language which is used as the medium of instruction from the first grade onward be taught as a subject from the third grade onwards:

(e) that French be introduced as a subject but not as the medium of instruction, in the third grade and that its teaching be intensified progressively until the second year of secondary school so that it may serve as the medium of instruction from the third year of secondary school.

Concerning the secondary school level:

(a) that at the secondary school level all courses be taught in Zairian languages in the first and second year;

(b) that a second Zairian language be introduced in the third year of secondary school that this language be taught as a subject but not used as a medium of instruction; (and) that it be chosen in terms of its practical importance;

(c) that beginning with the third year of secondary school, the Zairian language that is used as the medium of instruction from the first year, continues to serve as the medium of instruction for certain courses such as school social studeis, hygiene, composition, religion or civics, nutrition, Zairian commercial correspondence, aesthetics etc.;

(d) that beyong the third year of secondary school certain courses be taught remporarily in French (cf. point c above);

(e) that English be taught from the fourth year of secondary school onward. (25)

(Quoted in: E. G. Bokamba,"Authenticity and the Choice of a National Language: the case of Zaire." Presence Africaine No. 99/100, 1976).

2.1.2. THE SOCIETY AND ITS PARTICULAR

Lingusitic Situation

- Is it linguistically homogeneous/Letecogeneous?
- The dominant language (s)
- Nature (type of its language(s) and interrelationships.
- Degree of ethnic loyalty v/s degree of national consciousness.
- Is there any correlation between language and religion
- Degree of loyalty to ethnic language(s) v/s Degree of acceptability of national language
- Does in possess a majro language accepted and used as a lingua Franca and potentially acceptable as an official national language?
- Does its languge have a wide dialectal variations to the extent of hindering communication?
- Is there a unified coherent political framework to accommodate its multi-ethnic and multi-lingual componenets?
- Is there an official national language polciy which defines the status, functions, use of the languages currently in the society and its institutions?
- Nature and extent of value-judgements attached to the various languages used in the society.
- what percentage of its child population have access to education?
- To what extent is English or French (or any other European language) felt as an instrument of upper mobility within the socio-economic structure?
- To what extent is the above last point determined by the fact that English or French is the official language, and not because it is a European language?
- Class interests, elitism and language use
- To what extent does the language factor hinders of favours dialogue and communication between the government and the people?

- The incidence of sex on language use.
- etc.

ILLUSTRATION I

THE LANGUAGE SITUATION IN ZAIRE

The first difficulty that a language policy-maker will encounter in Zaire is the multiplicity of the so-called "national languages." In addition to several other major and minor languages that are spoken, Lingala, Swahili, Tshiluba and Kikongo have been recognised since colonial times as national languages for certain governmental functions such as elementary education (kindergerten to third grade), predeedings of the lower courts of justice, radio and T.V. broaddasting and local government administration (township and village levels). Thier distribution in the six original Provinces of Zaire and the Federal District of Kinshasa is, according to Bokasa (12) as follows:

TABLE 1: ZAIRIAN NATIONAL LANGUAGES

PROVINCE	LINGALA	SWAHILI	TSHILUBA	KIKONGO
Kinshasa	x			x
Bakongo (Bandundu)	x			x
Equateur	x			
Orietale	x	x		
Kasai			x	
Kivu		x		
Katanga		x		

TABLE II: ADOPTABILITY OF LINGALA AND SWAHILI IN ZAIRE

C R I T E R I A	LINGALA	SWAHILI
i. Availability of teachers	+	+
ii. Established written literature	-	+
iii. Lingua Franca status over Zaire (assumed)	+	-
iv. Official language of armed forces	+	-
v. Language of modern Zairian music	+	-
vi. Language of social mobility in Zaire	+	-
vii. Required language of Catholic Clergy	+	-
viii. Authenticity Zairian language	+	-

(From E. G. Bokamba, "Authencity and the Choice of a National Language: the case of Zaire in the presence Africaine , No. 99/100, 1976).

ILLUSTRATION II

"All the countries of East Africa, as a matter of national development or even of national existence, must answer a set of language questions. The policy decisions which these answers constitute then require implementation often on a large scale and over long periods of time. Some of these questions are of language choice: what language(s) should be the Official language(s) of the government law, administration, armed forces? What language(s) should be used as the medium of instruction at various levels of the educational system? What should be the language(s) of the radio publishing telegrams, trade unions, school subjects etc.

Associated with such question are others relating to language teaching, what is the most efficient way of implementing decisions about official languages? What language(s) can be taught with the resources available?

What are the difficulties in teaching a particular language to particular groups of people?.....

Finding suitable answers to questions like these in the countries of East Africa is of a social importance in their economic, political and social development. Development of the educational system and of a communication network are increasingly recognised as critical elements in national development and both are dependent on language policies."

W. Whiteley, "Linguistics and Africa: 1962-1967 " in International Congress of Africanists "Dakar 1967.

2.1.3. The Learner

- His socio-geographical background
- Ethnic origin, religion
- Linguistic group
- How do the above factors, determine his language, behaviour/linguistic consciousness?
- What is/are the language(s) acquired by him at home and through the environment?
- Attitude towards home and area language as opposed to attitude towards the official language(s)
- Language-learning motivations
- Does the sex of the learner has any bearing on above points?
- Level of proficiency attained in language learned at school.

2.1.4. The School Situation

- Location, urban, rural Coastal?
- Orientation: Academic, technical, vocational?
- Linguistic environment in which it is situation level. Primary/Secondary
- Socio-economic environment of pupils
- Boy's, school girls, school co-education?
- Languages offered at what level? (Status of the language).
- The medium(s) of instruction
- Number of weekly periods plus duration of each period for each language
- Which language(s) is used as a means of access to the writing skill?
- Does the pupil start to learn the languages simultaneously or is there a staggering of the languages to be learned?
- Teaching equipment and resources (to be specified in detail)
- Professional training/qualifications of the language teachers. (Specify levels at which they teach, the methods they use, their knowledge of linguists and their orientation).

2.2.0. Types of Objectives Specific to Language Curriculum Development

2.3.1. Linguistic-Orientated Objectives

- Nature of the language
  - It is a purely language or does it have an athography with substantial written literature?
  - Family of language to which it belongs
  - Does it have a stnadrdised form?
  - Statistical data showing use
  - Is there a linguistic description of its vowel/consonant systems
  - Its syḳkable/word structure
  - Its rhythm, stress intonation patterns
  - Its sentence structures
  - Characteristics of word-order
  - Verbal system
  - Characteristics of its number/gender categories etc.

CONTRASTIVE/COMPARATIVE STUDY OF MOTHER TONGUE AND SECOND OR FOREIGN LANGUAGE(S) TO BE LEARNED IN ORDER TO DETERMINE AREAS OF LEARNING DIFFICULTIES

Linguistic comparison between the learner's mother tongue and the second or foreign language(s) to be laerned make it possible to identify areas of diffuculty:

(a) At the phonological level i.e. at the level of the respective sound systems of the language involved.
(b) At the syntactic level i.e. at the level of the grammar systems of the language involved.
(c) At the clerical level i.e. at the level of vocabulary systems of the language involved.

However, linguistic comparisons can only provide insights into areas of difficulty. These predicated areas of difficulty may not be confirmed in actual practice. It is therefore necessary to complement data obtained through linguistic comparisons by using the learner's errors as a second and perhaps more interesting source for identifying areas of difficulty.

Determining the basic rules and patterns of the sound grammar and vocabulary system of the language to be taught

The teaching of any language implies at the outset a process of selection and graduation of the language items to be taught. The selection and gradation of the language items can be made according to the following criteria:

- compasrison with the mother-tongue (see 2.3.1.)
- sound, grammar and vocabulary items selected on the basis of their basic importance in the language to be taught (use, frequency "disresponsibilities" etc) established on statistical facts.
- the items selected have to be graded according to their intrinsic degree of difficulty, and also according to the physchrolinguistic maturation stage of the learner.

DEVELOPING THE LANGUAGE SKILLS

Traditional approaches to language teaching were heavily biased towards the reading and writing skills. With the growing influence of linguistics, teachers and language curriculum developers have emphasised the importance of the listening and speaking skills. In facts the emphasis on the audio-oral skills reflect the natural process of language acquisition: from the audio oral acquisition to the reading/writing skills, which are learned in a formal setting the school.

However, recent developments in linguistics and language teaching have highlighted the importance of teaching the learner to communicate in the language. In other words, it is not enough to know the rules of the language; the learner should also have a knowledge of and be given practice in the speaking rules of the language.

- Understanding the nature of language and language use

One of the aims of any sound language-teaching programme should at some stage develop new healthy attitudes to language. What is language? How does it function?

What is the relationship between spoken and written language? How does language evolve in society? What is the relationship between language and culture?

These are only some of the questions which have to be dealt with in order to eradicate old prejudice against some of our language.

R. Fawett: "Improving lower primary language teaching in Africa' (K I E)

6. THE INFLUENCE OF THE LEARNER'S MOTHER TONGUE

It is now almost university accepted that a knowledge of a learner's mother tongue will greatly help planning the course through which he will learn a new language. One problem facing the course-planner in Africa is that there are reliable gramtical descriptions of of hardly any of the children's mother tongue. There are even fewer studies, even of limited aspects of language, which compare the children's mother tongue and English. The course-planner is therefore thrown back on his own resource to a large extent.

There is no doubt that many phonological problems can be successfully predicted, especially in the area of segmental phonomes. Useful generalisations can also be made about some grammatical problems, such as the use of deitics (determiners) and the word order in nowinal groups containing a noun head and modifying objective. But the comparison of such complex systems as the ways of conveying time-concepts in English and the relevant African languages raises problems of a very different order, especially in view of the inadequacy of most studies of the English time systems.

There is another sort of problems too. Even when one is satisfied that one has a satisfactory anlysis of the relevant portions of the two languages concerned, it is often hard to decide whether a specific case should be treated as an example of a one-to-one correspondence, and therefore as easy to learn, or as one of theose cases where the correspondence, through close, is in fact incomplete, so that the item should be ranked high on the hierarchy of difficulty. Such matters require a very full study by a highly trained linguist. The problems are further multiplied in a country such as Kenya, where the children's mother tongue may belong to one of three totally unrelated families: Bantu, Nilotic or Cushitic. But it is still possible to establish common problems each of the main languages in the area of segmental phenomena.

But there is a place where even a fairly superficial knowledge of the grammar and phonology of the children's mother tingue can have practical value. This is in determining the course of the mistakes that the children make in the trial lessons. It has frequently been found that once the problem is understood the lesson can be re-written in such a way as to avoid it. In other cases the sequence of items to be taught may need to be re-arranged.

Furthermore, an understanding of language use will enable the learner to become aware of language registers, varieties etc. and of the need to choose the right register variety etc. depending on the communication situation.

2.2.2. Learner derived objectives

- Ability to understand and interact with his environment

Language is an essential factor in the cognitive growth of the child. It allows him to discover the world that surrounds him, through language the child perception of the objects and categories that form part of his environment and of their interrelationship is enhanced. Language activity is therefore essential to the psychological and intellectual development of the learner.

Ability to use language in a meaningful way for communication

Language plays an important part in the process of socialisation. Through language, the learner interacts with people in an infinitive variety of meaningful situation. This interaction process develops in the learner the competence needed for communicating in a meaningful way.

In the case of a second or foreign language the emphasis is now more and more on developing the communicative skill in order to give the learner practice in the use of the speaking rules of the language.

Ability to express his ideas emotions feelings etc.

We use language not only for interpersonal communication but also for personal expression. How often do we find ourselves in the unpleasant situation of not being able to express in words our thoughts or emotions!

It is not enough to know the basic rules and pattern of a language. Every language possess a rich complexity of structives which allow for the expression of the most suitable thought or the deepest feeling. The content of the language curriculum must be planned use of language, at more advance levels of language learning.

- Ability to acquire knowledge through language

As a medium of instruction language cuts across the curriculum and enable the learner to acquire and increase his knowledge of the subject fields of study. But the acquisition of knowledge is a dynamic process which is not restricted to the school. Knowledge is stored in books, periodicals, magarine etc. and is diffused round the world through libraries and books. The ability to read and to process the content of a text is therefore a skill which has to be developed systematically.

- Ability to use language for leisure

Reading for pleasure in an activity which should form part of language teaching materials. It is a distinct activity from reading for comprehension or reading for comprehension or reading for knowledge acquisition. The ability to appreciate a literacy text, to distinguish and evaluate the different types of written text on market does not develop automatically through contract with Wole Soyinka or Steinbanck. It has to be cultivated, in other words, the learner has to be trained.

2.2.3. Society - derived objectives
Relating the language curriculum to the language situation/polciy of the country

In a paper entitled "Linguistics and Africa: 1962-1967" W.U. whitley raises three important language questions which African countries have to face. These are:

(a) Matters relating to national unity and identity.
(b) Matters relating to national unity and identity
(c) Matters relating to international communication."

The answers to these questions constitute in fact the formulation of national language policy. Their implications for the education system are obvious the school constitutes an important agent for the effective implementation of the national language policy. This means that appropraite curriculum will have to be produced for:

- the language(s) identified as vehicle of progress and development.
- the language(s) identified as vehicle of international communication.

A crucial problem: the choice of the language(s) which are in a position to fulfil these functions in a multi-ethnic and multilingual context and which are acceptable to the people by and large.

2.2.4. Pedagogically derived objectives

Mother-tongue or foreign-language teaching?

The question is an important one for the approach will not be the same. In the case of the mother tongue, the learner already posssess the basic patterns of the language when he comes to school This will influence the type and content of curriculum materials he will be presented with as well as the actual methodological procedures. In the case of the foreign language, the learner will have to acquire new speech habits in terms of sound articulation grammar and vocabulary structure. Foreign language teaching are generally based on two different theories of language learning which can be summarised as follows:

- Language behaviour is a set of habits therefore language learning is a question of habit formation.

-Language is rule-governed behaviour therefore language learning consists internalizing the rules of the language through a process of application and testing.

The approach based on the first theory tends to be highly inductive: through repeated and systematic practice, the learner develops language habits in an automatic, unconscious way. This has given rise the pattern practice method which relies heavily on language drills.

The approach based on the second approach tends to be highly deductive; the learner the rules first, then applies it through a coin of reinforcement exercise. Unlike the inductive approach, the deductive approach relies heavily on explanations and conscious assimilation of the rules of the language.

The two approaches in fact complement each other and the ideal method is the one which combines features of both. The degree of compromise depends obviously on many factors: average age of the classroom, level of proficiency, number of pupils in the classroom etc.

Subject of study or medium of instruction

The stage at which a language is introduced in the school curriculum depends on its status and function within the curriculum. The language chosen as medium of introduction has priority over the other language, since performance in the medium languages in variably affects performance in the other subjects of the curriculum.

The extension of the learner's vocabulary is an important feature of medium language teaching since it should cover a wide variety of them and subject matter derived from the various components of the school curriculum.

Conversely, the use of the medium language for the teaching of the various school subjects tends to increase the learner's competence and performance in that language. This dynamic interaction between the medium language and the school subjects should be present in the curriculum developed for the medium language.

- Language learning experiences/activities"

  These can be derived from a wide range of techniques and procedures. A part from the textbook itself (which unfortunately tends too often to be the sole source of language learning activities), there are other text materials - newspaper articles, magazine charts, etc - which are used as support materials.

Non-text materials - songs and rhythms, oral traditions, real language games puzzles etc. - constitute an important source of variety and allow for practising language in new and motivating situations.

Personal involvement within the classroom through dramatization guided conversation individual/group work teacher-pupil and pupil interaction helps the learner to use language in situation for communication purposes.

It is the task of the language teacher to select from numerous language teaching techniques and procedures, those which are appropriate to the language skill he is dealing with or to the aspect of language (pronounciation, grammar vocabulary) which he has to concentrate on.

"Mother tongue medium" versus English medium"
When weighing the relative merits of various media of education, we must remember what a modern curriculum involves. The basic concepts are activity, discovery, and expression. Children build balance, knock down, sort, arrange in patterns, pour, stir, spill, draw, paint, cut, stick dance, mime and do a thousand other active things. They investigate, experiment and invent as they do them, and thereby discover the basic principles of elementary science and mathematics. They do these things simply and in groups, sharing, helping, initiating, following. At any one time there should be several activities available to a child, so that he is free to impose his own order to learning on the materials. An integral part of this approach to education is that children should be able to externalise their experiences and fantasies by talking about them.

Throughout all this activity, language is needed for communication with each other and with the teacher for co-operative activities of all sorts; for giving and getting suggestions, orders, permission, requests and so on.

We must remember tha home and school make highly constrasting psychological demands on a young child. To add a complete change of language for what is the central part of each day may to some children, mean that school becomes a traumatic experience, rather than the place of delight in discovery and creativity that should be.

Kenyan concern about these matters led in 1967 to the establishment of eight experimental classes. The aim was to see what could be achieved by using the children's mother tongue in conjunction with a modern lower primary curriculum. The result was what one would expect.

The fact that the teacher and the children could communicate completely freely with each other made a vast difference to the atmosphere of the classroom.
Anyone who is familiar with modern lower primary education in a country such as Britain where children are educated through their mother tongue, and who visits these classes in Kenya, will feel that the same sort of learning is goin on.

R. P. Fawcett: "The medium of education in the lower primary school in Africa with special reference to Kenya" (In "Language in Education" ed. by T. P. Forman)

2.2.5. A combination of 2.3.1. - 2.3.4.: the learner's behavioural objective.

The language curriculum is not just a language course of study. It is concerned with the nature of the language involved and also with their relationship functions and status within a given social set up.

To put it in another way, the language curriculum is the planned language learning experiences and activities offered to the learner under the guidance of the school.

It should include all the objectives fundamental to any language learning situation as well as those specific to the needs and realities of a particular society.

To outline we have included two examples of the basic principles underlying the statement of language, curriculum objectives as an illustration of the major points described in the Unit.

ILLUSTRATION I

GAMBIA - INTRODUCTION TO THE PRIMARY ENGLISH SCHOOL SYLLABUS

1. The justification for teaching English in our schools is that English is the most widely spoken international language in the world and should be taught for this reason if no other. The decision was also governed by the position of the English language in the Gambia society. Engli is the official language of The Gambia and therefore it is important that children should have a firm grasp of the language after six years of formal education. Since the majority of children at the early age of one to six - when they do most of their language learning - are not exposed to the English Language it becomes the problem of the educationists to choose the best method of equipping the primary child with the necessary English language skills to enable him to feel secure communication wise in a country where English is his second language. The best solution therefore was to make English the first language in schools. i.e. to use it as the medium of instruction as a second not a foreign language. This settled, terminal then yearly obejectives, were drawn up to refelect the national goal and at the same time achieve the aims of second language teaching. The objectives covered the four skills of language learning - listening, speaking, reading and writing.

2. The main aims of teaching English at the Primary School level in the Gambia may be stated as follows:-
   a. to enable the pupil to handle his environment i.e. environment to describe it, live in it and to think critically about it and
   b. to eanble the pupil to have a window on the world i.e. to be able to read about/to listen to/to discuss/to write about events which have a more general application than to his immediate locality.

It must be emphasised at this point that, at Primary School level, aim (a) is far more important than aim (b).

To achieve this aim, here has to be a radical revision of traditional teaching habits with their emphasis on rate learning, drilling, passing the Common Entrace etc. What is required is the teaching of a living language with meaningful application to get pupils to take a lively interest in all that is going on around them. In the Educational Policy it is proposed in the next ren years, to provide secondary places for 70% of the graduates from Primary Schools but the primary School syllabus should be able to cater for the rest of 30% Primary School leavers as well so that they could face life with as little disadvantage as possible. To this end, the English teacher mus be aware of all the possiblities of other subjects and the neighbourhood in his teaching; local art maths, music. history and geography, the local market and the compound - are all their interest, am and instruct pupils in the use of English.

With this in mind, the syllabus has been designed to give meaning and relevance to the teaching of English from both the teacher's and the pupil's point of view. Since English is the medium of instruction English has necessarily to embrace all the other subejcts. Hence we see English not as a special subject but as the common factor in all other subject, and therefore all teachers are to some extent teachers of English.

Also since tge present system of staff distribution in the Primary School is to have a teacher to a class, it is essential that all Primary school teachers should be taught the basics of modern approaches to Teaching English as a Second Language.

3. The main point to note is that in any teaching situation the pupil proceed from the known to the unknown. Hence the first half of our course is devoted exclusively to the school, the home and the immediate locality - their needs, their organisations and their description. In the second half, the scope of topic ocntent will get broader but must still be restricted to the interests and needs of the pupil and the country.

   In proceeding from the known to the unknown, the emphasis must be on teaching the pupils enough relevant language to enable them toexpress their thoughts and ideas concisely and to think critically. Just as they must acquire the concepts of number, wieght and volume etc. in mathematics to enable them to handle life after school, so, in much the same way and for the same reason, they must acquire the ability to listen to, to speak, to read and write English; - to listen to Radio Gambia and the BBC, to read for information and for enjoyment, to speak concisely and accurately, so that they can be understood and to write notes, reports and letters in the right register and tone. In learning these linguistic skills in the official language, they will also learn to take an interest in their jobs and environment, in local culture and in local and national affairs. They will be able to think about these rationally and to criticise them constructively,

4. To make the class teacher's task easier the objectives for each year have been assigned to terms for that year in what seems to be the most logical order.

   A word of caution is necessary at this point. The learning of any language is necessarily an indivisible process - one cannot meaningfully state that any certain part or portion of the language can be learnt in isolation in a particular period. That part or portion may be introduced at a certain time by a teacher but will not become part of the pupil's linguistic competence until it has been practised in a variety of situations and been found to be acceptable and unacceptable. Everything in Language is interconnected. Therefore when objectives are shown for each term, what is is meant is that this is the time when we feel the emphasis on the achievement of the objective begins.

Each topic, such as the learning of a certain number of lexical items or the ability to write a certain kind of letter, is not over and done with in one day or one week or one term. It must be practised, and consolidated in the coming weeks and terms in meaningful contexts until it is fully incorporated in the pupil's linguistic competence. We feel that objectives stated for each year are the ones that matter. An objective may be defined as a measurable change in behaviour brought about by teaching. Our evaluation procedure therefore does not seek to question what the teacher has done in order to acnieve an objective, but what the pupil can do at the end of the year's teaching to show whether or not he has achieved the objective. In language teaching, a year is probably the minimum unit of time to test whether true language abilities as opposed to drilled and parrotted phrases and technique have been acquired.

We would like to make it clear also, that we are not at making native English speakers of our Gambian pupils. What we aim at is sufficient mastery of the language by the pupil to anable him, to understand and be understood by a native and any other speaker of English. In order to achieve this, the pupil must be able not only to speak, write and read in English but also to think in English. The class teacher must therefore avoid translations from LI (the pupil's mother tongue) to L2 (English) and revision and remedial work must continue each lesson and each year respectively. To facilitate this and to ensure that the stated yearly objectives are achieved, we have therefore made the Syllabus flexible enough to encourage teacher ingenuity in creating appropriate situations and acitivities for his lessons, but at the same time rigid enough to forestall any deviations from the stated objectives.

E N G L I S H L A N G U A G E:

TERMINAL OBJECTIVES FOR THE PRIMARY SCHOOL

These are classified under listening, speaking, reading and writing skills

LISTENING SKILLS

At the end of his Primary School Course the child should be able to:

1. Understand what he hears and get the meaning intended by the reader/speaker.
2. Identify variation of meanings as conveyed by tone of voice/and stress
3. Discriminate between correct and incorrect usage of English phenomena

SPEAKING SKILLS:

At the end of his Primary School Course the child should be able to:

1. Speak distintly and fleuntly to convey the meaning intended
2. Relate in his own words what he hears
3. Express his thoughts and ideas in logical order.
4. Speak precisely
5. Make an attempt at analysing his enjoyment of Literature - Poetry, Drama, Stories.

READING SKILLS

At the end of his Primary School Course the child should be able to:

1. Read aloud and with reasonable skill
2. Understand what he reads
3. Remember what he has read.

3. (b) Summarise what he has read
   (c) Dramatise what he has read
4. Discriminate between relevant and irrelevant ideas
5. Draw correct conclusions from what he has read
6. Read to find information, for understanding and for pleasure,
7. Use a dictionary and other reference books effectively.

WRITING SKILLS

At the end of his Primary School Course the child should be able to:

1. Write ligibly
2. Use correct English to express his own ideas and thoughts in writing (in 250 to 300 words)
3. Write a summary of what he reads and hears
4. Keep simple records
5. Write simple business and personal letters.

ILLUSTRATION II

TANZANIA: GUIDELINES FOR FRENCH TEACHING IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS FORM I TO FORM IV

Two main features of Tanzanian policy can justify the teaching of French in secondary schools.

Since independence, Tanzania has been working towards the unit of Africa. Tanzania has realised, with many other countries, how vital it is to facilitate communication with French-speaking nations and to break out of the histroical situations of isolation between the two parts of the continent.

Inside the country, it is a part of the implementation of the self-reliance policy to produce linguists who will be able to operate confidently in fluent and contemporary French, in order to answer the needs of the nation in this field as teachers, or civil servants in ministries and parastatal organisations.

At present, about a third of secondary schools are authorised to teach French. Where it is to be taught, French is a compulsory subject in Form I and II and optional in Froms III and IV.

This year, for the first time, French will be taught in one stream in From V. The implementation of French in secondary schools, although posing problems of all sorts, is when Form VI leavers reach the University, as it will greatly make it possible to enrol, as students in education, Tanzanians with a good basic knowledge of French. That will ultimately raise the standard in secondary schools.

The conditions in which effective French teaching for the National Form IV Examination syllabus can take place are as follows:

1. An allocation of four periods per week from Form I to Form IV (This is a minimum). Double periods are to be avoided.

   Adequate audio-visual equipment: i.e.
   - A flannel graph and a set of "figurines."
   - A tape-recorder, with an external loudspeaker for large rooms.
   - Possibly, any kind of audio-visual equipment such as slides, projector, record-player, overhead-projector etc.
   - A special French room.

In this room the audio-visual equipment will be stired so that no time will be lsot setting it up at the beginning of the lesson, and the machines will be preserved from damage due to too much handling.

The windows should have curtains to make slide projection possible. The electric supply system should work properly. One socket at each extremity of the classroom will be very useful. Cupboards are required for the equipment and for a library.

3. Teachers with the following essential qualifications:
   - Fluent idiomatic French
   - A University degree with French as a main component
   - A teaching qualification with specification in language teaching methods and special training in audio-visual methods of teaching French.

SPECIFIC AIMS:

1. To expose pupils to a second international language of key importance in Africa today.
2. To give pupils the stimuli and challenge of lauguage learning.

   To train pupils in the basic language skills of:
   (a) Listening
   (b) Speaking
   (c) Reading
   (d) Writing

To give pupils systematic training in the associated activities which build up the above language skills:

(a)
- Hearing
- Imitating
- Listening
- Understanding
- Repetition

(b)
- Pronounciation
- Controlled dialogue
- Free, conversation
- Looking

(c)
- Seeing
- Recognising
- Reading
- Copying

(d)
- Guided writing
- Creative writing

To prepare pupils for the specific activities required for National Form IV Examination. To produce a significant number of keen and fluent linguists with a sound knowledge of French:

- who will continue French during their vocational training
- whose French can be reactivated, should it be required for or during their future jobs
- who would be capable of continuing French in Form V and VI and then go on to study at university level.

CONTENT

It is is very difficult to define the precise content of a language syllabus. The emphasis should be put on the skills and activities rather than on the number of words or structures to be covered. Too many references to an exclusively French context as appeared in old books should be avoided as being irrelevant and useless in real life of Africa. On the contrary, the living French of everyday life of International Africa will be placed first. At the end of Form IV students should be conversant with: The lexical content of "Francais fundamental ler et zeme degre" as set out in "Dictionnaire fondamental pour l'Afrique Anglophone" by David (BELC). The grammatical and structural content of "Francais fondamental ler degr'e" and partly of the grammar that appears in "Francais fondamental Zeme degr'e" The obvious aspects of contemporary life in French-speaking Africa and certain characteristic features of life in France as portrayed in the course books and reading materials.

METHODOLOGY

Each of the recommended course books is part of an audio-visual set which includes detailed teachers' notes. In addition to that it will be good for teachers to read "Guide pedagogique pour le professeur de francaise langue etrangere" (Hachette) or the special issue of "Le francaise dans le monde" out of which the guide has been made. Another book, although slightly more theoritical, will be very useful: "Linguistique appliquee et didactique des langues" "Armand Colin Longman. Without detailing too much, as it is not our main purpose,we can birefly try to outline the main features of the method.

- French and only French should be used from the very first lesson throughout the course.
- Spoken French should be prevalent. The first lessons will be essentially oral, then written French will be introduced, only when the spoken part of the lesson is known perfectly.
- Contracted and graded introduction to writing and its associated activities.
- Systematic use of pattern drills and structural exercise, oral, and written, to facilitate the memorization and the fixation of structures and idiom.
- Persistent emphasis on reading for overall meaning.
- Emphasis throughout on the importance of oral participation by the maximum number of pupils.
- Much dialogue and conversation
- The use throughout the course of meaningful situations relevant to the daily life, topics and material of current interest in Africa.
- A programme of extensive readings

  Readings - Tanzanian National Form IV Syllabus
  - Secondary School Curriculum guide - Inspectorate Ministry of Education of Kenya
  Linguistique appliquee et didactique des langues.

2.3.0. Language Curriculum Objectives with Special reference to Literature

In reaction to the heavy literary bias of traditional language curriculum, recent trends of language curriculum development have, under the influence of the findings and statements of linguistics placed more emphasis on language learning and study as such. This shift of emphasis is quite ligitimate, but often extreme views have been expressed on the relevance - or rather lack of relevance - of literature to the language curriculum.

In the content of foreign language curriculum obviously the distinction between learning and the study of literature is clear-cut. But before we speak of the difference of approach to mother-tongue and foreign-language curriculum with reference to literature, we should analyse the relationship between language and literature within the broad framework of language curriculum development in general.

2.3.1. Some of the basic functions of the study of literature

Through the study of literature, the learner:

- Participates in the cultural life and heritage of his country, in its values and traditions.
- Develops his capacity for authentic appreciation
- Develops his imaginative power
- Enriches his reflection and sharpens his critical sense.
- Derives pleasure through reading
- Understands and appreciates the subtleties of language and its evocative power.
- Gets deeper insights into human nature in relation with society.

2.3.2. Different types/levels of literature and their Objectives

Literature in its broad sense, can mean any written text in which language is used for some special effect: In practice, however, specially in the educational context; literature tends to be restricted to written works of a certain degree or authentic quality.

Broadly speating, they types/levels of literature and their objectives can be outlined as follows:

Type	Level	Objectives
rhythms and poems, folktales	beginner	- ability to grasp simple ploy structure
myths and legends fantasy stories		- be sensitive to to character and interplay of character action be sensitive to rhythen.
short novels, poetry, leaders adopted to the learner's developmental stage	internediate	become aware of form content relationships - become aware of the basic principles of structure in literature - be able to compare literary forms and their effects on the material presented.
complex novel plays, poetry etc.	advanced	- be able to analyse the language of literature in relation to the "geure" - be able to interpret a literary work in terms of its quality, scope, relevance to human/social experience - be able to relate literature to other fields of study: psychology, sociology history etc.

2.3.3. Literature and Language Curriculum Development in Africa

Some of the questions raised in 2.2.1. (languages to be taught) concerned the existence of an orthography for the language involved, the use of that language as a literary medium, the amount of written literature produced in it.

These points can be reframed in a different perspective to oppose African and non-African languages.

- To what extent the opposition between Africa and non-African languages implie an opposition between oral and written literature?

But it can also do the conversation, and make him a foreigner among his own. This does not mean that all books studied must be written by Tanzanians; far from it. But the student must be trained to read them with the eyes of a Tanzanian, and to use the yardsticks and values of Tanzanian society as his measuring rods.

To sum up, the study of literature should provide the student with meaningful, enjoyable activity through which he can acquire practical skills which are both useful and relavant to his society and at the same time achieve a deeper understanding of his fellow men, their motivations, attitudes, and values."

P. J. Roe., "The teaching of literature in Tanzanian Schools" (In T. P. Gorman (Ed), "Language in Education in Eastern Africa)"

2.3.4. The Foreign Language Curriculum with reference to Literature in English/French

The functions listed in 2.3.1. are normally fulfilled by mother-tongue literature. But in some contexts - in Africa, for example, some of these functions have to be fulfilled by literature in English or French.

English or French in Africa being foregin languages when viewed from the pedagogical angle of the study of literature as such implies as relatively solid. Competence, in the language, should be considered as an acitivity distinct from language learning.

- What is the attitude of the society towards existing written literature in the African language(s) as opposed to the attitude towards literature in English or French?
- What is the attitude of the Society towards literature written in English or French by Africans as opposed to literature in English or French by non-Africans?

ILLUSTRATION

"The first reason why a subject is included in the curriculum is because it is useful and relevant to the community to which the pupil belongs. Literature in English can be included only if it is made useful and relevant.....

The second important point is that its terminal behaviour must be expressed in terms of skills acquired (if not of facts memorised). How many of our literature in English classes equip our pupils with skills which are useful and relevant to their community?

The third factor is enjoyment. This is indeed an end in itself, but also a means to an end. Enjoyment, leads to more frequent practive and a more receptive mind, which in turn leads to the more rapid learning of skills.....

The study of literature can give the student a deeper appreciation of the workings of his own society and the scale of values to which it adheres.

Nevertheless, some interaction between language learning and literature can be established through the selection and integration of appropriate literary materials in order to improve the learner's competence in the language.

We shall list down some of the ways in which such contribution can take place:

- Reading for comprehension
  Emphasis on understanding - what the passage is about
- Reading for pleasure
  Emphasis on appreciation: how the content of the passage is highlighted by its formal properties: the learner establishes a personal contract with the text and relates it to his own experience and interests.
- Organising language learning activities around a theme and illustrating the theme with an appropriate lieterary passage.
- Use of appropriate readers (in terms of type/level) to make language learning enjoyable and motivating.

AFRICAN CURRICULUM ORGANISATION

BASIC TRAINING COURSE IN SYSTEMATIC
CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

COURSE SIX

UNIT THREE: SELECTING AND PREPARING MATERIALS FOR LANGUAGE CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

UNIT OBJECTIVES:

It is hoped that the material in this Unit will held the reader:

(i) Identify clearly and show increased awareness of the interactions among the factors which influence the selection of CONTENT, TEACHING-LEARNING RESOURCES, and LEARNING EXPERIENCES in language curriculum development

(ii) Identify and use available resources for language curriculum development;

(iii) Apply the knowledge derived from i-ii to select and/or prepare appropriate content, resources etc. for his own language curriculum development projects;

(iv) Devise appropriate means and strategies for the storage and retrieval of language curriculum materials.

3.1. Selection Versus Preparation

The development of a curriculum involves the acquisition of relevant materials. There are two main sources for these materials. First, there are materials which already exist. The task of the curriculum developer in this instance is to pick what is relevant to his needs. This is Selection of Materials. Secondly, the curriculum developer might find he needs certain materials that do not exist, in which case, he has to prepare such materials before they are available for his use. The African situation is dynamic and in may ways quite unique. This is perhaps more so in the areas of language than in any other areas. Thus, it is difficult to find the materials for curriculum development for the linguistic needs at various levels for various purposes. To be less abstract, suppose a curriculum developer is thinking about English comprehension exercises for lower high school in a place like Kenya. He might for any reason select a series of comprehension pieces which do not only help the learners acquire the comprehension skill in English but also improve their knowledge of the geographical facts of East Africa. This could be such s specialised need that the curriculum developer would have to think of preparing such materials. In this task, several options are open to him:

1. He might ask a specialist to prepare the material for him
2. He might prepare the material himself if he is qualified.

Irrespective of who prepares the material, there is still the choice between:

1. Preparing the comprehension pieces from existing material, and
2. Creating his own pieces with the relevant content.

To take another example, a language curriculum developer in Africa can easily find himself in a situation where he is supposed to develop a curriculum for a wide use of language which is not yet written. There, his selection exercise becomes minimal compared to the necessary preparation even from the fundamentals of developing an orthography for the language.

Although a distinction is made between selection and preparation of language curriculum materisl, there is a sense in which selection is necessary even when materials are being prepared just as what is selected can sometimes call for further prepartion. This is because the use of materials in curriculum development involves choice all the times. For language, there is the choice of content which is based on the relavant language skills to be imparted. At the same time, what language material a curriculum developer uses depends on the learning experiences and activities through which the necessary skills are to be taught or learned.

3.2. What to select and what to prepare

Materials form which a language curriculum developer can choose are many. First there are the textual materials which in many ways constitute the central core in language books of various kinds. These are textbooks, teachers' guides, workbooks, supplementary readers, etc. Then there are the technological materials which have found their place in language education to various degrees. These include tape recorders, cassettes, and cassette tapes; filmstrips (usually by their booklets); records and record players; slides and slide projectors etc.

Language curriculum development materials are regarded as such by virtue of their content and how that content is related to the language skills. The books, tapes etc. are relevant in so far as they contain, or otherwise can contribute to the acquisition of certain language skills. Since language skills are basically oral (in as far as writing is secondary to speech) particularly in the African situation, it might be useful to the language curriculum developer to remember what oral materials are available to him.

A language curriculum developer selectes or prepares his material within a specific situation. Besides his goals, and his own knowledge and experience, he will therefore always operate within limitations. For example, such limitations might be socio-economic. With this sort of limitation, it is unlikely that a language curriculum developer in Kenya would incooperate the use of even tapes a ɗn tape recorders for use in Kenya primary schools. He must be aware of such limitations as he takes stock of materials from which he can choose.

Thus a language curriculum developer selects textual or on-textual material for the learner and the teacher. He selects them because their content will facilitate the learning of the language skills he intends his curriculum to teach. In this task, he must make the best use of what is practically available to him immediately and what he knows will be available to the users of his language curriculum. For example, given the task of selecting or preparing materials for standard one pupils to begin teaching them English, the language curriculum developer must know for a start that he really can only make use of textual material. Ideally he will need textual materials that are simple and relevant to maximize the benefit of both teachers and pupils.

The different speech communities will probably need different contents as will be discussed below. What is important here is that without the necessary facilities such as electricity, or the techinical know-how, it would be risky to rely on technological materials such as records and record players. Even radios, in this instance cannot be assured to be accessible to all.

3.3. Selection and Preparation of content for language curriculum development

The choice for language curriculum development materials is the choice of their content. What makes even a book to be counted with language curriculum materials is what use its contents can be put to. Certain factors can be identified as being particularly relevant in the selection and preparation of the content of language curriculum development materials.

First among these is the language or languages to be taught. This is a constraint in the obvious way, for example that textual material in one language cannot be chosen to teach a skill in another language. One cannot basically use Swahili text to teach English language skills. Closely related to the language itself is the use to which the language is to be put. This is to some extent controlled by the place of that language in the immediate and world society. In Unit One of this course, we discussed varieties of a language together with various language skills. The content of a language curriculum is selected or prepared to help develop certain language skills to be applied in cerain identifiable circumstances. To take an example, in Kenyan primary schools English as a language is taught. This language is the medium of instruction from upper primary throughout the educational system. It is also the language of administration in the Republic.

The objective of teaching this language from the start must be to equip the learner with all the language skills. It is to help the learner acquire a high level of competence in English. This need is further enhanced by the fact that English is a world language that the speaker's use of it is therefore potentitally unlimited. Within the other constraints, the choice of materials for English education in schools in Kenya must be guided by the fact that there is in fact no limit to what of the language is to be learned or taught.

However, if a language curriculum is to be drawn for teaching Swahili to visiting Russian doctors who are to work in the Kenya national hospitals, then quite a specific variety of Swahili is needed. The obejctive in this case must be to enable the Russian doctors to be able to understand the complaints of the Kenya patients and be able to at least pass a word of advice or comfort in Swahili. In this restricted context, the content of the language curriculum must include words from a particular register - the medical register. Ordinarily, tapping this list would be names of parts of the body. In fact, even just the knowledge of the words for parts of the body in Swahili shared by the doctor and the patient can facilitate very useful communication. For example, if a man enters the surgery holding his tummy and cried to the doctor <u>tumbo</u>, any doctor who knows any Swahili word will not be lost as to where to start. If the patient did not say any more, his appendicitis could easily be diagnosed. Besides these nouns, a few verbs that are particularly relevant to this register would be necessary. Such verbs include the equivalents of hurting, vomiting, breathing, etc. At the sentential level, the Russian doctor will need sentences that are short and clear and that will elicit from their patients precise and definite replies. This knowledge of Swahili is limited so he does not want the patient to start

yapping about the history of his ailments. The content of the materials for this part will include questions like:

Unaumwa wapi?
Where do you feel pain?

Hapa panauma
Does that hurt?

This getting the replies of simply hapa (here) or ndio (yes).
Where it is books or tapes, therefore the content of such materials must always be relevant.

The second constraint in the selection and prepartion of the content of language curriculum materials is the learner. Language materials must be appropriate, for example to the level of the learner. Perhaps it is too obvious to state that the contents of a book for language learning at pre-school level cannot be the same as at high school level. The learners background is relevant in another sense. A child learning a language from the beginning would prefer a different sort of material content from an adult with the same level of experience with the language. This is because the two learners will be motivated by different factors, and they will have different interests. For example English readers for lower primary schools must contain light fantasy stories which will arrest the interests of children. The language structures used must also be simple and basic so it falls within their competence. On the other hand, readers for upper high school in a system where English has been used throughout primary and lower high school must make use of measurably more complex structures. The content must vary from stories into multidiamentional value to factual texts that will teach the pupils something besides helping them acquire certain language skills.

Similarly, the acquisition of language skills could be made more natural and interesting if the materials used were more culaturally relevant to the learner's background. Most people involved in curriculum development now will have gone through education in the colonial times. They will have used textbooks that were essentially foreign in background.

A reflection of how they went about what they could not comprehend would be interesting.

Even a university student of literature will have problems is fully enjoying "The heart of the Midlothian" with no experience of the Scotish cultural background with the countries and the hagis etc. On the other hand, a Kikuyu undergraduate stands a better chance of learning to enjoy literature if he goes through Ngugu wa Thion'go's "The River Between." Besides the general cultural background of the learner, the language curriculum development, the linguistic background of the learner is of paramount importance. The knowledge of what language a learner speaks if second language materials are to be chosen or prepared is useful in many ways. Closely related is the knowledge of how the language(s) already spoken compare with the target language. Such knowledge should enable the curriculum developer to predict and forestall the learning problems of the learner. Materials can then be chosen with a clear view to reinforcing the possible problem areas. For example if a programme is to be designed to teach adult Luo people to <u>speak</u> English, it might be relevant and useful to know that in phonological system of perhaps the only language they have spoken so far there are no sounds comparable to the English(s). Assuming that it is important how they speak, introduction of this sound in English cna be designed in such a way that <u>interference</u> of Dholuo on the learner's English in this particular area is minimised.

Thirdly the language curriculum developer needs to know about the society for which his curriculum materials will be used. He needs to know the institutions in which language curriculum will be used. For example, the emphasis on society puts on a particular language will reflect in the institutions such as schools and the facilities available therefore teaching of the language. A curriculum developer can be guided in the preparation of his material when he known what is avaiable for use in schools right from the teachers to be equipped.

If the curriculum developer is an accultrated member of the society for which he is developing a language curriculum perhaps the content will be naturally adopted to the socio-political as well as economic tune of the society. But whatever the case, the language curriculum development must appreciate that the content of language materials which is acceptable in a sociolistic or revolutionary society may be unacceptable in a capitalistic oriented one. The stories to be read by the children must be acceptable and in line with the accepted norms.

3.4. Preparing appropriate syllabus for language curriculum Programmes

The appropriateness of a language syllabus is measurable at two levels. Firstly it is its adequacy to the needs of the society. Second is its adequacy in achieving its immediate objectives. Thus an appropriate syllabus for a language curriculum programme is one based on clear objectives which are based on a clear understanding of the needs of the society and the learner. It is well graded to the level of the learner. Within the relevant society, such a syllabus out to provide some continuity. All this means that a language curriculum developer cannot cannot produce an appropriate syllabus in isolation just into his technical knowledge of curriculum development.

An appropriate syllabus for language curriculum development must be drawn in collaboration with various people in the society. The curriculum developer can draw from the expertise of the language teacher who has first-hand knowledge of the learner. The teacher knows best the abilities, limitations and prejudices not only of the learners but possibly of the immediate society as a whole.

They also know the facilities available to them in school, so they will be generally better informed about the practicabilities of any theories. The language curriculum developer will also do well to work into his syllabus what parents can contribute to it as members of the society. The co-operation of parents particularly in the teaching of certain language skills can halve the task of the classroom teacher. This is only possible if the parents have a co-operative attitude towards the objectives of the language syllabus. Sometimes it might be necessary to delibarately solicit and even campaign for their co-operation. For example in a situation where English is the medium of instruction throughout most of the education system, if a language curriculum developer wishes to draw out a syllabus for education in any other language especially in the lower classes, he must be ready for the possibility of resistance or non-co-operation of parents with the argument that the sooner their children learn English, the easier they should find it in higher education. Such attitudes will be reflected in the child and his motivation. If the language is mother spoken by the parents, they will discourage rather than encourage the child to develop skills in it unless they are agreeable.

In the light of what has already been said in this unit perhaps the first stage in preparing an appropriate syllabus for language curriculum programmes is an appreciation and critical awareness of the language situation as well as the socio-economic situation of the intended consumer society.

As part of this knowledge, of course, the specific level for the specific syllabus must be known. With such background knowledge, the curriculum developer can select his materials and their contents and organise these into his programme. The curriculum developer with the knowledge of the background, and the materials at hand clear, is able to make a draft of his syllabus. With the draft he can further consult people he is collaborating with as well as any relevant books, articles etc. This should improve the quality as well as relevance of what is finally produced.

For example, thinking about an English language sysllabus form. Some schools in Kenya, the relevant knowledge of the situation would include the following: Kenya is a developing country, this means there are lots of facilities that she cannot afford. Although a few form ones will be in schools where they might even have a language laboratory, the majority of classes will not have any more than the bare textbooks. For the level of the syllabus, the author will need to know that form ones in this country have been instructed in English for at least four years. At this particular time, the experiences of the form one pupils in the republic will, however, be far from uniform. There will, for example, be children of African parentage but will somehow only know English as their language. These have been exposed to various varieties of English for as long as they have lived. The primary schools and the pre-schools , the children will have attended and will have a bearing on their command and use of English. Other pupils, especially from the rural areas will have known English only in the pedagogical sense. Almost all the pupils will be bi or multi-lingual. The variety of language they speak can probably amount to different language families. From this heterogeneous background, there is the need to improve the English of the pupils so that they can handle all the subject now at a higher level in the language.

The majority of not all the pupils need to prepre themselves for an examination they will take four years both in English as a language and in other subjects in English medium. Those who pass that examination well, will proceed with education in much the same lines as far as English is concerned. Those who leave school at that level must be able to use and understand the language to survive in all the non-domestic institutions of the society. With this background, the syllabus must incorporate materials that are designed to improve reading and writing skills that will in turn enhance eomprehension and production of language.

The pupils should have the chance to develop their listening skills so that they can comprehend spoken English with no difficulty. They need to improve their speech of English. Such syllabus may contain:

1. English Grammar Books
   These will be of inetermediate level, able to help the learner understand the structure of the language with some of the basic rules they have to acquire in order that their performance in the language is acceptable.

2. Readers
   Readers which make use of the grammatical structure so that they can see the grammar in actual use of the language. Such readers could be in graded series so that the children with higher competence in the language can wade through while those with lesser competence have time to catch up. Because English is a world as well as a national language, such readers' content can easily vary from local culturally relevant material to less parochial subjects. Whatever their content, the form one pupils are young, and they must be able to enjoy what they read. A bridged ineternational work of art can be quite appropriate . These may include simplified Dickens or even Shakespeare. The readers should include novel or short stories, plays and poetry.

3. Comprehension pieces

Comprehension pieces which are designed to test their understanding of the grammatical structures, and vocabulary plus various uses of English. These should be able to be used to test their comprehension in writing as well as orally, but the details are best left to the teacher.

Text on composition writing as well as composition pieces and topics. The texts on writing will give the teacher and the pupils theoritical hints. Actual samples will show the hints in use. The pupils should then be able to practice with the topics.

5. Workbooks

These can usually be made use of in various ways for various purposes. They may be on the grammar, or comprehension, or even composition.

6. Together with all, these, there should be teacher's copies to exaplain the principles to be taught and the expectation of the command of the pupil at this level.

Syllabus Revision

Syllabus revision is a continous process. Right from the time the individual curriculum developer draws up its outline of content for a language curriculum, he should show this to other competent personnel fellow curriculum specialists, teachers, etc. to pronounce on its adequacy. After he had arranged the content in sequal order he should also show this to other persons and re-order the material where necessary. When curriculum material is developed to fit the content of the language programme this should also be subjected to outside vetting (particularly by language scienctists) to see of the language is adopted to the level of the learner, to see if illustrations are adequate and meaningful etc. This should be followed by the needed tasks of additions, deletions, modifications etc.

Every syllabus should in fact be regarded as tentative (i.e. as a draft which is continously under review).

3.5. Selection of Teaching-learning activities for language Curriculum Development

Closely related to the selection of language curriculum material and their content is the selection of the activity to be used, as the medium for the transmission of a particular language skill. There again, the choice depends on the immediate and wider context in which the syllabus is to be used. Besides this there is the fact that language skills are different from language facts. To a great extent language skills can only be acquired, they cannot be learned in the same way that facts can. In fact, learning the linguistic facts of language does not really guarantee the skills.

The facts of language pertain to what is traditionally referred to as grammar. Teaching these is an attempt to make the learners conscious of what they already know if they are native speakers of the language. This is why learning English grammar with children of English parentage does leave children whose mother tongue is not English to any particular disadvantage. The activity of teaching such facts is simple. It is enough to have an ordinary classroom situation in which the teacher either tells the pupils what the rules are and gives examples, or he goes through a chosen textbook which gives the same information. For example, teaching the syntatic facts of the English relative clause, the following are facts:

1. The relative clause is introduced by relative pronouns in new phrases.
2. There are two types of relative clauses according to their meaning or function. These are restructive or non-restructive relative clauses.

3. The semantic differences if the two types of relative clauses are correlated by syntatic facts. In speech the non-restrictive relative clause is isolated from the matrix- sentence by pauses - in writing this is represented by commas etc.
4. The relative clauses are introduced by the relative pronouns which are,

    who
    what
    which
    where
    when
    that

These are chosen according to the features of the noun phrases which the clauses qualify or follow.

The use of the relative clause construction in communication in English cannot on the other hand be defined in finite terms. The learners might be helped to develop their use of this structure by exposing them to texts or recordings of speech using these structures in reasonably natural contexts. Activities available for this are reading of carefully chosen or prepared texts. To identify the two types of relative clauses examples might first be given e.g.

1. Girls who are over fifteen should leave the class.
   - This is restrictive; <u>who are over fifteeen</u> restricts the girls who should leave. Any girls who are below fifteen can stay.
2. Girls, who are over fifteen, should leave the class.
   - This is non-restictive, who are over fifteen does not restrict the girls to leave, it simply says something else about girls in this class - all of them - and they are over fifteen.

Actual text for reinforcing the use of this structure, say for upper primary school might be as follows:

Aloo: What did the teacher give you?
Mwangi: The teacher gave me a pencil
Aloo: What are you looking for?
Mwangi: I am looking for my pencil
Teacher: (to Mwangi) Lend Aloo the pencil which I gave you
Mwangi: I am sorry, teacher, I have lost the pencil which you gave me.

This piece of language can be read silently or aloud. It can be learned by heart and recited or even acted. The teacher can read it to the class.

The selection of these activities must be carefully done to encourage the acquisition of whatever language skills. For the four language skills, an individual needs to acquire for a particular language a finite set of rules. The skills manifest themselves in performance but underlying this is the user's competence (see Unit I, Section 1.1.). One might take the natural situation in which a child learns to speak her mother tongue. The institutionalised situation of language learning imitate the natural activities. Somehow all the possible activities rotate around uttering language and listening. This follows the fact that writing is an attempt to represent speech. Thus in the choice and organisation of activities for language curriculum development, the curriculum developer must take this fact into account. Other factors relate to the learner. His special pecularities relevant to language learning and his needs. A knowledge of the teachers for whom the language curriculum is developed will also help the developer in deciding which learning activities to build the curriculum. A knowledge of the culture of both the learner and the teacher, for example would be very useful in deciding what learning activities would be acceptable, interesting and more natural.

Since the language curriculum developer does not necessarily come into direct contact with the learners the way the teachers do, his selection of the language learning activities must remain general and broad for the teachers to choose from. The activities from which the developer can choose include for example:

Reading:

This is an acitivity which makes use of written materials which contact relevant to the skills to be acquired or improved. What is read therefore varies from words to story books, plays etc. How the reading is done also varies with different situation. In a class situation there could be silent reading, reading loudly to the class, reading in small groups or pairs. Generally the learners have exposed to some language and they have a chance as it were, use it with a certain amount of involvement. Closely related to reading is play-acting where the learners may learn and use words of other people in restricting contexts of communication: At various levels, it is possible to stretch the learners to create their own language as they act familiar situations. Also another related activity is story-telling. Learners like school children here get opportunity to use the language to tell stories. Everyone can enjoy this while the teacher takes note of problem areas for later action. Writing is another major activity for the teaching and learning of language. What is written here range from copying out stretches of language into writing composition, stories,or plays. There are then activities which make use of non-text materials of audio-visual aids such as listening to recorded language and/or watching films of language in use.

3.6. Selecting and preparing materials for language curriculum development

Language is relevant in all human activity. As such there is no limit to where the language curriculum developer's materials could be drawn from. Working within his own needs and constraints the sources of his materials are unlimited. He can make use of published materials as well as unpublished ones. He can use oral materials, recorded for his use, or otherwise transmitted. He can make use of the teachers and learners to produce certain types of materials.

What constitutes materials for language learning and language teaching has already been discussed. We only add that besides the formal materials like student texts, teachers guides, workbooks, etc. the language curriculum developer should be aware of the non-formal materials that can be available to him. In collaboration with other curriculum developers, specially in a situation where the language he is designing a curriculum for is also the medium of instruction, his course can be furthered all the time at various levels.

For example, it might be taken for granted, that as a general rule a language teacher has a higher comptence in the language to be taught than his learners. This means that the curriculum developer, shares the same competence with the teacher can regard the teacher as a source of certain material. Sometimes this becomes the only way. In teaching the sound of language, as an instance, the curriculum must sometimes rely on the teacher's production to supplement the description of these sounds. In a school system, if the history, geography or science textbooks are well-written, in a place like Kenya where they are written in English, the textbooks can be regarded as a useful material in English teaching in Primary schools.

Whereas the Geography teacher need not penalise the pupil for English mistakes on the geography paper, the teacher can take every opportunity to widen the pupil's English vocabulary. The language curriculum developer can then use the geography textbooks in preparing or seleting his material. Without realising it, the child could be learning a subject and the language in an interesting way. Less abstractly when the geography syllabus is scheduled to teach about the physical geography of Kenya, the primary school language curriculum developer can choose to more or less at the same time give adapted passages with the relevant vocabulary.

This would include words like:
mountains
valleys
rivers
volcanoes
deltas
deserts
maps
vegetation
occupation
rift.

Though common in the register of physical geography teaching, such words are ordinary and the local examples would be easily used by the teachers teaching the meaning of the words.

Thinking of the pupils' textbooks and the teachers' workbooks and the factors relevant to the selection of such materials, the following are some useful guidelines:

1. Students textbooks should contain materials which are well-graded and divided to progressively teach specific facts or skills. Thus, a Swahili Grammar textbook should be well-organised in the grammatical facts of the language. Assuming that the information include sounds of the language, the sentences and their structure, and the meaning of words the three aspects would be better considered more or less simultaneously. This is suggest that the book could be organised such that in one week or term, certain grammatical facts are learned together with some vocabulary which can be used to exemptify structures. Thinking about the structure of popular sentences, for example, a sentence such as the following might be presented:

Adija ni mwalimu
(Adija is a teacher)

The sentence can be used to teach information patterns. It can also be used to teach the meaning of the word - mwalimu.

Readers of literary works used in language teaching say at primary level need to be pretantiably a continous series that share certain basic characteristics that the young learners come to identify and enjoy. The earlier in the series for younger primary school pupils could ideally contain stories nearer to their cultural experience, or general universal concepts or phanatics. With the development of their conceptual ability, they can learn more into more foreign stories. Speicific learning experiences can be identified in every part of the book and these can be reinforced by questions, exercises, or even related adopted plays. So a story from a reader may for example be followed by comprehension or vocabulary questions for the learner to attempt. At higher levels a learner might be asked to render the content of a story in a reader in playfrom or poetic form.

Teachers' guides, particularly in language curriculum development need only to be precise explanation of the envisaged objective. They might contain information on alternative sources of material that can be used to supplement the basic readers. They might contain information on possible learning activities for which the teacher on the spot can choose. Whatever handbook the teachers have, they will need what has been here called grammar books to give them a more conscious knowledge of the rules of the language. This is necessary whether they are teaching their mother tongue or not.

3.7. Storage and retreval of language learning and language teaching materials

Language learning or language teacher materials are valuable things whether they be books or expensive technological equipment. As such, the first thing to consider in their storage is their security. Books used well and stored well can last a long time. Otherwise, they are made of paper which gets torn very easily. Sometimes the best workbooks have to be produced cheaply so the burden is on the users to look after them. Tapes and records are very easily damaged. For storage alone can render records useless.

The curriculum developer has an early knowledge of what quality and bulk of material a programme is going to need. He is therefore better placed to build in, in advance how such materials can be safely stored. Books and pamphlets need shelves where they can stand undamaged. The handling of records need technical knowledge of what can damage them. Tapes spools and cassettes can be stored in open racks, shelves, or trays. What is significant is that the curriculum developer can design before hand the best ways to handle the material he chooses and gives this information to the schools as he gives the materials.

But the security of materials must be compiled with the accessibility. Materials so well tacked away that nobody can easily get at them are useless. For example, if the high school language learner has the recommended books on an open shelf in his own classroom, he has a better chance of using more of them than if he had to go to a higher form or even a central library for them. Similarly, not many pupils will get round to making full use of a language tape and recorder that they have to go through the prefect, class-teacher and the headmaster before they can use it.

To improve accessibility, materials must be classified for storage so that they can be labelled and arranged in a manner understandable by the users. This should be coupled with a clear system of recordings of the movement of the materials. The system should be such that the users of the materials know how to get them. At the same time there must be a clear way to return or retrieve the materials as and when necessary for the benefit of all.

AFRICAN CURRICULUM ORGANISATION

BASIC TRAINING COURSE IN SYSTEMATIC CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

COURSE SIX:

UNIT FOUR: IMPLEMENTING LANGUAGE CURRICULUM PROGRAMMES

UNIT OBJECTIVES:

The purpose of this Unit is to help the learner:

(i) Identify correctly the agencies involved in the implementation of language curriculum programmes

(ii) Distinguish clearly the roles and functions of the various agencies involved in language curriculum implementation;

(iii) Identify correctly the distinct stages of language curriculum implementation and be aware of the relative merits of the various strategies one can adopt at each stage; and

(iv) Show an awareness of the general and specific of language curriculum implementation and devise appropriate solutions to such problems.

4.1. WHAT IMPLEMENTATION ENTAILS

Most curriculum efforts involve planned change. Change cannot take place unless curriculum that is planned gets to the beneficiaries. Handing over a new curriculum physically to its prospective users and beneficiaries is not the end of the story. The curriculum developer has to ensure that the new curriculum is accepted. Acceptance does of course mean swallowing without question the objectives, the content the beneficiaries of a new curriculum will need to accept the philosophy guiding development of a new curriculum but this will have to be achieved through a multiple process of interaction. Curriculum implementation, "the process of putting a curriculum into operation " always entails "the fostering of interaction of the students, the teachers, the ideas, materials and equipment with a view of achieving the goals of the new curriculum."

Many revolutionary, well conceived, and well planned curriculum changes have flundered because the type of interaction just described did not take place. "Modern Mathematics" had to face this sort of problem in several African countries. The same is true of efforts in some parts of Africa to teach indegenous languages in schools (e.g. the attempt to teach Wolof in Senegalese schools). The abolition of what used to be known as "formal grammar" from public examination syllabuses, and the consequent abandonment of the theoritical teaching of grammar in second and foreign language classes, is meeting with tough resistance everywhere because putting those programmes into action did not involve the right type of interaction between the various elements and agencies which should normally be involved in curriculum implementation.

This Unit aims at making the reader aware of the nature of language curriculum implementation; the principles, strategies, and agencies involved, as well as the problems which the language curriculum developer in Africa is likely to face in his efforts in putting his curriculum in operation. Most writing on curriculum development tend to see the chain of activities involved in implementation as something that comes relatively late in the curriculum process. In practice this is not always so. One will in fact be right in saying that there is an implementation activity (or a series of activities) involved at all stages of curriculum development. Table I below shows the model of implementation adopted by this Unit. As has been pointed out earlier, the discussion here will be with special emphasis on language curriculum development.

Table One: IMPLEMENTATION AS A FEATURE OF ALL STAGES OF CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

STAGE	MAJOR CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES	IN-BUILT IMPLEMENTATION ACTIVITIES
I. Pre-Planning	Looking into existing situations (Language use in school and society, national education policy as related to language etc) to know what exists, problems etc.	Consultations with competence groups and individuals (linguists, education planners, language teachers and other sources (books, members of the community
II. Planning	Drawing appropriate lessons from the linguistics, language teaching situations, the situation in the schools etc. to set out the objectives, content, and methods of a new language curriculum	Sharing one's views with qualified language teachers and linguists and modifying, enriching one's ideas on the objectives, content and methods of the new language curriculum

STAGE	MAJOR CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES	IN-BUILT IMPLEMENTATION ACTIVITIES
III. Development	Collecting and Preparing language curriculum materials and guidelines for their use	Relying as much as possible on the collaboration of other competent persons (i.e. the expert judgement of linguists and language teachers on what should go into the new curriculum, the appropriateness adequacy of each material) (or aspect of material etc)
IV. Try-out	Seeing the extent to which the new language curriuclum can realise th-e obtectives underlying it.	Relying heavily on data from users(classroom language teachers) and recipients (classroom language learners).
V. Revision	Changing whatever needs changing. Removing what is redundant. Enriching what needs enrichment etc.	Working in conjunction with prospective users of the new language curriculum to ensure that the revised language curriculum meets the needs of the school, the learners and the society.
VI. Dissemination	Getting the new langugae curriculum to a larger audience	Getting a larger number users and recipients to understand the objectives of the new language curriculum to agree to put it into use, and to help monitor its progress in the schools
VII. Monitoring Stage	Finding out how well the new language curriculum in working	Continous collection of data from users and recipients on various aspects of the language curriculum.

Curriculum implementation is the narrower sense of the term, is usually limited to stages IV, VI and VII. To avoid most of the problems that have played curriculum development efforts in African countries, the reader is well adviced to operate in the way suggested in the above table. This implies continous interaction between the curriculum developer, the material, the users, and the recipients at every stage of the continous process of language curriculum development.

4.2. AGENCIES OF LANGUAGE CURRICULUM IMPLEMENTATION

Language, as was pointed out in Unit I, is of immense importance to human beings. Social life would be difficult without language as verbal communication among persons would not be possible. In the school language is perhaps the most important subject on the school curriculum. All normal children need to acquire language skills and develop these skills for thinking, for learning and understanding other school subjects. Every school teacher is therefore, to a great extent, a teacher of language. In primary schools, where teachers do not always specialise along subject lines, every teacher teaches language (the children's mother tongue, an area language, the official language, the language of instruction in schools etc). In the secondary schools even specialist teachers in mathematics and science carry on all their teaching through the use of language. They have to interact verbally with the pupils, even they are performing experiments and demonstrating how something happens or how something ought to be done. It would be right therefore to say that all secondary school teachers are teachers of language, partuclarly of that language that is used for instruction.

Parents are also language teachers in the sense that they are concerned about the development of their children. An important aspect of human development is cognitive (or intellectual development). For this to take place the child would need to acquire and use language. Individuals also need language to be able to socialise with other people in the wider community. All parents play and talk with their children. Most children get to know about their immediate environment (names of persons, objects, and the learning of concepts) through the medium of the language of their homes. Why the mother tongue is the language of instruction in schools, most African children come to school with a fair amount of audio-oral knowledge of their mother tongue.

Where parents speak the standard dialect and are illiterate they do a lot to simplify the work of the teacher by being good models of language use to their children. Where the school system uses a European-derived official language for instruction whether the home aids learning or parents.

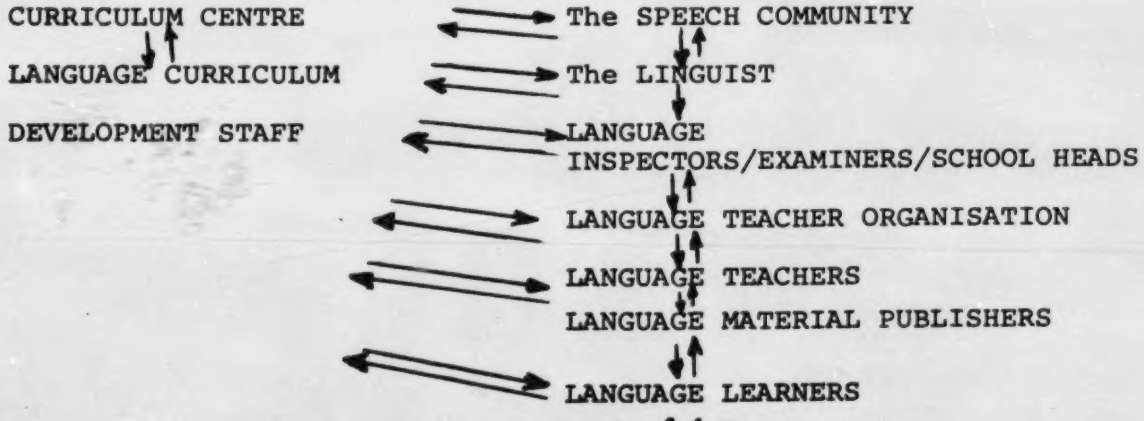
Parents who have been to school and use English correctly and fluently will, for example, be of help to their children who are learning English in schools. On the other hand, parents who have not been to school and who therefore do not know enough English will not be able to help the school English-Learning of their children adequately.

Every language used for human communications is "owned" by a speech community (see Unit 1, section 1.1.). It is the speech community which decides what is acceptable (or correct) language usage and what is not. The individual learner is being brought up to learn and use the language(s) of the speech community to which he belongs. In most cases the language of the school community is also the vehicle for expressing its cultural values. So knowing the language(s) of one's speech community is a starting point for acculturation which is one of the major objectives of education. The European-derived official languages used in many African countries are no longer regarded strictly as the English or the French. This is because they have spread to other parts of the world where they have taken on different shapes and forms. One can therefore speak of the English language speech communities of Zaire, or Senegal or Madagascar. Since one has to teach language in schools on behalf of a specific speech community is also an agency for the implementation of a language curriculum. The language curriculum developer has to interact continously with the speech community for which a language curriculum is being developed.

The language curriculum has of course to be used in school and classroom settings which means that its real users are classroom language teachers and the the real beneficiaries are language learners. We know however, that there are other influences on the school than the home and the speech community already mentioned. There are examining bodies. In many African countries, these are different from the teaching bodies. There are also classes of educational administrators (inspectors, school heads, heads of departments etc) who decide what should happen in the schools and who takes steps to ensure that what they think should happen in schools actually happens. In addition there are preofessional linguists from whom the language curriculum developer gets information on language and language teachers organisations who have a lot of influence on their members. There are also book - publishers who for a long time were the real curriculum developers in African countries.

The point that this section is trying to make, therefore, is that just as curriculum implementation is a complex activity, the agencies of implementation are multitudinous. With particular reference to language teaching the curriculum developer (when embarking on implementation has to interact with the hierarchy of agencies, as illustrated in figure I.

FIGURE ONE: THE CHIANS OF INFORMATION INVOLVED IN IMPLEMENTING LANGUAGE CURRICULA



The direction of the arrows show that, in most cases, a two-day interaction channel is involved. The language curriculum staff has to interact with the Curriculum Centre itself from which it draws relevant information and knowledge on the national language policies and the general techniques of curriculum development and implementation. At the same time the right-hand side of figure one. These factors also interact with one another. The factors on the top fp the chain relations "feed in" the one's below them and receive feedback from them. At the same time the factors interact jointly and individually with language curriculum developer and the curriculum development team in general.

To minimise implemetnation,therefore,the language curriculum developer has to ensure that he interacts with the whole amount of agencies shown in figure one. He should be aware of the mutual interrelationship between the agencies. Several curriculum development efforts have been wrecked because the curriculum developers have interacted with some agencies to the neglect of the others.

4.3. SUGGESTED STRATEGIES FORLANGUAGE CURRICULUM IMPLEMENTATION

Manufacturers of goods and services employ the services of advertisers to make their product known to consumers. Most advertisers try to persuade the buyer to buy particular goods and services by proving that they are better than all other goods. The advertiser uses hyperbole to flatter both his goods and the potential buyer. The curriculum implementer is also advertiser in the sense that he has to get his curriculum to the schools. His task however goes beyond that of other breeds of advertisers. The curriculum implementer has to communicate with his audience (in our case the language teacher and the language learner) as well as all other agencies who are likely to influence his audience (in our case the speech community, the linguist, the language subject association, the examining bodies, the publishers of language textbooks, and language inspectors). This type of communication involves the following:

(i) understand the groups or individuals you are interacting with;
(ii) understanding the forces that are likely to influence the particular groups we are dealing with;
(iii) speaking with them in the language which they understand;
(iv) respecting the views of the persons and agencies with whom we are interacting; and
(v) admitting the faults and limitation of our products (i.e. the curriculum and making amends where and when necessary;

From this and what he has been said earlier (see 4.1. and 4.2.) it would be seen that the curriculum developer does not just finish a product, like the salesman and advertiser. It sells at all stages of manufacture - from the design stage, through the manufacturing stage, to the finished product stage and even beyond that stage.

Each stage requires different strategies of implemtation. For the sake of consistency we shall use the same terminologies as are used in Table I for describing the various stages of curriculum development and implementation.

Our discussion and illustrations will however, be with special reference to language curriculum development.

Interactions at the Pre-Planning Stage:

At his stage the language curriculum developer is in first stage of enlisting the support of the speech community for whom a curriculum is being developed in. The curriculum developers tasks at this stage consists of situational analysis. To know exactly what the situations are, he has to consult several sources. Government policy documents and official pronouncements will give him information on what the language education policies are. Such policies vary from one country to another. In Tanzania, for example, the policy is to encourage the spread of Kiswahili; in Cameroon it is to encourage English-French bilingualism; in many countries (e.g. the Gambia) it is to introduce national languages in the first years of primary education. Detailed language maps would have another source of valuable information for the language curriculum developer. These are however, difficult to come by in many curriculum centres. One of the useful side-line activity the language curriculum developer can carry out in the prepartion of a language map for his country. Something along this line was done by some participants at the African Curriculum Orgnisation Workshop on Curriculum Material Development held in the Gambia in July-August, 1978. These members of the national languages panel produced a map showing the zones of influence of Wolof, Fulah and Mandinka - the three major languages of the Gambia.

Language Use Survey reports as those carried out in Nigeria (1966), Uganda and Kenya (1971) will also be good materials for the language curriculum developer. In most cases, however, the African language curriculum developer will have to do all the groundwork himself because of the inadequcy of existing materials. He would have to collect information on (i) the existing languages of his environment, (ii) the use that people make of these languages (iii) people's attitudes to learning them, (iv) which of the languages are currently taught (or used) in schools, (v) how are they taught in schools, and (vi) the major problems of those who handle the languages in the school system. In carrying out these and related tasks the language curriculum developer will be dealing with people. He will, for example, be discussing with linguists who have studied the language situations and problems in his area. He will be discussing with teachers and learners. He will be examining existing syllabus and textbooks. He will read extensively. The process of interaction with persons, books, etc. will help enrich his original ideas, give him greater insight into the language curriculum he intends to develop, and prepare the way for implementation - through improved communications - at the other stages of language curriculum development.

Interactions at the Planning Stage:

At this stage, a proposal is made for a new language curriculum which could be one or more of the following:

- a curriculum in languages that were previously not taught in the schools (e.g. Wolof, Mandinka, Fulaar in Gambian Primary Schools)
  a new curriculum for languages that were taught in schools, (i.e. reforms of existing language curricula (e.g. modification of Dholuo and Gikuyu, Luhya in Standards I - VII of Kenyan primary schools in 1974, or curriculum of Igbo and Eofuk in Teacher Training Colleges prepared by the Nigerian Educational Research Council in 1976.

- an extension of existing language curricula to other sectors of education in which they were not previously taught (e.g. the extension of Kenyan language from the original Standards I -III to Standards IV, V, VI, and VII in Kenyan primary schools and "extension" of Kiswahili from senior primary to junior primary schools).
- the enrichment of existing language curricula by the inclusion of new items (e.g. the inclusion of culture as an aspect of school course in Nigerian languages recently carried out in Nigeria).
- the preparation of materials, the revision of syllabus, the restructuring of examinations. Such curriculum proposals should normally contain;

  (i) a brief analysis of existing language teaching situations showing their inadequcies etc.

  (ii) the objectives of the proposed language curriculum, showing how these are intended to solve the problems outlined in (i) and the relationship between the objectives and national needs.

  (iii) a detailed spelling out of the content of each level of the curriculum, and

  (iv) outline suggestions on materials, learning experience, and evaluation procedures.

To ensure sufficient professional input into the enrichment of the language curriculum (and to ensure a successful programme of implementation) the language curriculum developer should at this stage set up a panel that draws from the following:

- representatives of the speech community (especially if an African language is the focus of the new curriculum).
- linguists
- educationists (specialists in language teaching methodology and curriculum development);

- and other component persons (advisers who have experience in curriculum development elsewhere, examiners, publishers etc).

Many African curriculum centres have subject panels drawn along the lines jsut suggested. In Kenya, for example, the responsibilities of such panels are:

(i) constant review of existing syllabus or any curriculum area making recommendations to the academic board of the Kenya Institute of Education
(ii) initiating and guidance of curriculum development projects;
(iii) reviewing and recommending books and other teaching materials; and
(iv) constant review of examinations.

Panel members will have to review the evidence preseneted before them and by the language curriculum developer who should ensure that he presents objectives empirical evidence and not a catalogue of subjective and unsubstantiated statements. The curriculum developer's first task would be to explain the rationale (pedagogic and linguistic) behind his proposals. Panel members of different disciplines related to language education will then examine the proposals and modify them (or adopt them wholesale) after question, debates, etc.

Interactions During the Development Stage

This is the stage which the materials needed for teaching and learning are selected and/or prepared. For language curricula, such materials could be any combination of the following:

- collection of folklore, poetry, and other forms of oral literature (useful for teaching African languages)
- recording real life conversations, talks, lectures, pictures and other non-text material (useful in the early stages of language learning before reading and writing are introduced and at all stages of language study to bring out authentic samples of languages use).

- films - adaptation of existing ones for a new curriculum or ones specially made for the new language curriculum (useful in relating language use to natural situations).
- syllabuses to teachers and inspectors on how to use a particular language syllabus in school situations.
- student texts and language exercises books
- workbooks and supplementary readers

In preparing these materials the curriculum developer should as much as possible work with a team of competent persons. These would include those who took part in the planning and the pre-planning phases as well as others who are competent and experienced in classroom language teaching and in the preparation of materials. The team of material developers should as much as possible, proceed as follows:

- initial dialogue (explanations and questions on the objectives of the new language curriculum, the strategies to be followed, clarification of basic concepts.)
- division into groups to work on specific aspect of the material (e.g. a group on Unit One, another Unit Two; and a group working on supplementary reading materials; another on listening exercises, etc.).
- further discussion within the groups (to further clarify concepts, raise necessary issues and questions, sharing out responsibilities etc).
- actual writing, selection, modification (i,e. the stage at which curriculum materials are created and pieced together).
- plenaries (within-group and between-group discussions to exchange notes and ideas)
- second look at the materials prepared (a first stage editing within the group).

At the end of the development stage the philosophy of the new language curriculum would have been embodied by a fairly large number of professional. Such persons would be very useful in later stages of implementation.

Interactions During the Try-Out Stage

At this stage the language material prepared by a team of competent persons is edited at the curriculum centre, cyclostyled and bound and made ready for limited use in schools. In selecting the schools the language curriculum developers should ensure that they constitute a representative sample of the schools which will eventually use the finished product. If, for example, a new Ewondo language curriculum is to be used in five school districts of the Republic of Cameroon the schools selected for the try-out of materials should be spread all over the five districts. As much as possible one should take special characteristics of the schools into consideration (e.g. urban versus rural schools, schools with adequate facilities versus schools with limited facilities, etc.).

After the schools have been selected the teachers who would use the materials will have to be prepared. Teacher preparation should include:

(i) discussions on the objectives of the course,
(ii) explanation of the curriculum materials - how they were selected and prepared, their special attributes, etc., and
(iii) how the new material is to be used in the classroom.

As the material is being tried out the curriculum developer and others who had taken part in the process of developing the new language curriculum should visit schools to observe lessons, to hold discussions with teachers, to solve teachers' and teacher problems.

Interactions at the Revision Stage

At this stage, the curriculum language developer and his associates meet to consider evidence from the classroom use of the new curriculum materials and to take appropriate action. Interaction at this stage should be a true concerned one among curriculum centre personnel and their associates, selected material writers, and the try-our staff. The selected material writers could be the leaders of groups during the development stage. The try-out staff are those who used the material in the classroom. After discussions on the prospects and problems of the new language curriculum ammendments could be made in several directions, viz:

- the philosophy and objectives of the new language curriculum and the way these are communicated to the future users and beneficiaries of the new curriculum;
- the materials themselves (volume, number of lessons and exercises, wording of instructions, balance between one type of material and another etc).
- the guidelines given to teachers (how detailed they should be, the form they should take etc.)

In addition decisions will be taken on how best to go about the dissemination stage.

Interactions during the Dissemination and the Monitoring Stages:

Dissemination implies getting a new curriculum to its entire intended audience while monitoring is a continous effort to see how the new curriculum is functioning. The curriculum developer's tasks during these stages involve the prepartion of users and assisting them to use the new curriculum effectively.

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*This was the procedure adopted at ACO Curriculum Material Production workshops in Banjul (July-August, 1978) and in Nairobi (April). The reader should think of other possible ways of achieving the same results.

For language curriculum developer, the task of preparing the users (teachers, inspectors, etc) would be tripled, viz:

- training (or re-orientation) in the basic linguistics;
- training (or re-orientation) in modern principles of language teaching; and
- training on the use of the new language materials.

Preparation in basic linguistics and modern language teaching principles will vary in intensity according to the audience one is dealing with.

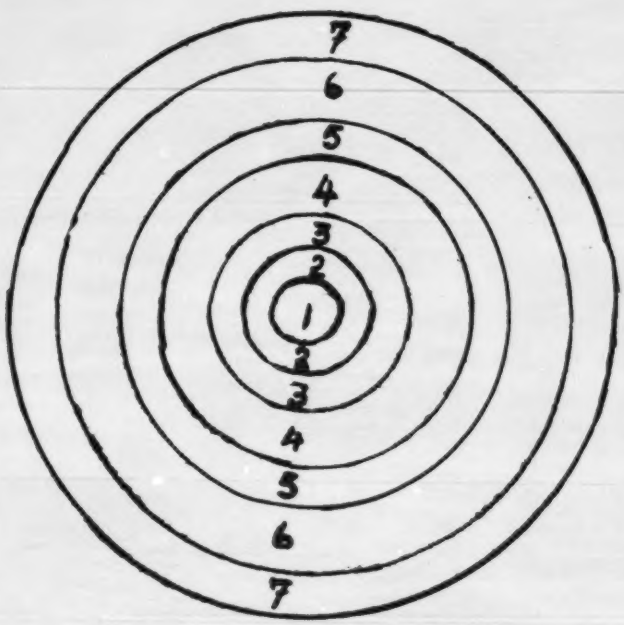
In many African countries, teachers are asked to teach African language mainly because they are speakers of such languages. To make them more effective teachers, such persons would need training in linguistics as applied to the languages simply because they are graduates in these languages. Such persons will need training in the principles of language teaching. In both cases one should in fact, expose teachers to both basic linguistics and language teaching principles both to update their knowledge and to enable them use the new language curriculum material adequately.

As much as possible, sepcialists and teachers who have participated in the development of the language curriculum material should take part in training teachers to use new material. The training of users . shoud also include exposure to evaluation techniques (especially how to take note of the difficulties of teachers and learners needed modification of materials, etc). Such an exposure will make teachers use collaboration in the task of monitoring the progress and usefulness of the new language curriculum. The preparation of teachers for the use of new curriculum materials should in itself be done in little bits to enable teachers understand each principle adequately before moving on to other things.

Such preparation should in itself be a continous activity which in itself is an aspect of monitoring. In countries with adequate facilities such continous training is done in Teachers Centres.

The greatest advantage of the strategies of implementation advocated here is that each stage involves a widening of the circle of those who are familiar with the basic philosophies of the new curriculum, its content, its method, i.e. the Curriculum Audience (see figure II). By the time the curriculum is fully developed, therefore its effects are felt in the schools and in the wider speech community because of the ripple effects of the various interactions and encounters between the curriculum developer and the wider audience outside the curriculum centre.

The interactions and encounters also help the curriculum developer to improve his knowledge of the language situation and language use in this environment of the process of curriculum development and of communication with other agencies of language curriculum implementation.



4.4. SPECIFIC PROBLEMS OF LANGUAGE CURRICULUM IMPLEMENTATION

Most general problems of Curriculum Implementation (shortage of teacher, lack of facilities, shortage of funds etc) also apply to language curriculum development. These are discussed in detail in more general course of this training programme title "Curriculum Implementation." With specific reference to language curriculum development, five main groups of implementation can be discerned. These relate to resistance to new ideas, peoples attitudes towards learning and teaching new languages, material resources, difficulties with publishers and examiners.

Ressitance to New Ideas on Language and Language Teaching

Language Curriculum Development has been a continous attempt to make schools language learning more life related. New methods of linugistic analysis have been evolved and these have been absorbed into language teaching theory.

There was a time when the grammar-translation method was the only way of teaching languages. In those days those who could learn. These days schooling have become less competitative, even in African countries. Languages are now being taught mainly for communication (particularly for oral communication). This has meant less emphasis on the formal teaching of grammar, especially in the teaching of European languages in Africa. The new active, audio-oral methods of language teaching demands more work on the part of the teacher. So, the teacher with every little formal training and resources tends to resist using these new methods. Teachers in this category are found all over Africa.

Another source of resistance is the literature sector of the community. This is made up of people who learnt their English and French the oto way and attribute the alleged fall in standards in education in general, and in language performance in particular, to the new methods of language teaching.

Unfavourable Attitudes Towards Learning New Languages

Two groups of language are concerned here - African Languages and second European languages. In the case of African languages, there are places (the example of Senegal has already been cited) where native speaker do not see the need for pupils, native languages to be taught in schools. In the Gambia, where the teaching of national languages has involved changes in orthography, a teacher was overheard in July 1978, saying that she would wish to retire before the new language syllabuses get to the schools. With second European languages (English in Francophone countries and French in Anglophone countries) the major problems have been these of lack of competent teachers and the lack of environmental support for the use of the languages. Moreover, inspectors and headmasters are yet to understand the principle of language teaching which emphasizes mainly audio-visual activities. Many teachers have been challenged for not introducing writing from the very beginning of a language course. In most of such cases no amount of linguistic and pedagogic explanations by teachers has yet convinced inspectors and headmasters.

Materials

New approaches to language teaching require materials of the non-text type. Tapes have to accompany textbooks to ensure that learners are exposed to authentic models of language use. In many African countries, the facilities for the reading and storage of the reading and storage of tapes are dismally lacking. Worse still many language teachers do not know how to use them. Many do not even want to use tapes because the use of tapes is more exerting than merely going through a story book with the teacher. Other non-text materials (charts, films, etc) are also almost totally absent in schools because the human capacity for making them is not there.

Publishers and Examining Bodies

Publishers complicate the problem becuase they are not willing to produce non-text materials mainly because text materials (e.g. textbooks) fetch more money. As long as the publishing of school materials is entursted to commercial publishers, this problem is likely to remain. Examining bodies bother about convenience and the expenses of the administration of examinations. They therefore tend to work at cross purposes with language curricula designed according to modern trend. For example, while every language teaching theory stresses the primary oracy, both the East Africa and the West Africa Examination Councils have not been able to make oral Enlgish compulsory at the end of secondary education. Their main assignments are (as has just been said) convenience (the administration of the tests will be too difficult) and expensive.

Most of these problems of curriculum implementation cannot be solved by the language curriculum developer. This is because many of them are aspects of the wider problems of underdevelopment. The language curriculum developer can however minimise the harmful efforts of most of these problems by widening his curriculum audience in the ways earlier suggested (see section 4.3.). The wider the curriculum audience, the greater are the chances of it containing people with specific skills, authorities and influences which can minimise the major problems of curriculum implementation.

AFRICAN CURRICULUM ORGANISATION

BASIC TRAINING COURSE IN SYSTEMATIC
CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

COURSE SIX:

UNIT FIVE: EVALUATION AND RENEWAL OF LANGUAGE
CURRICULUM PROJECTS

UNIT OBJECTIVES

This Unit is designed to enable the reader:

(i) to distinguish clearly the major differences between the traditional and modern concepts of educational evaluation

(ii) to apply his knowledge of the relevant concepts of educational evaluation to the systematic monitoring of the usefulness of every aspect and phase of a language curriculum project

(iii) to become conversant with the techniques of the construction of cognitive and non-cognitive instruments for language curriculum evaluation

(iv) to become aware of the usefulness and limitations of different types of evaluation instruments and strategies used in language learning and teaching.

(v) use evaluation data for decision-making in language curriculum matters.

5.1. MODERN CONCEPTS OF EDUCATIONAL EVALUATION

Evaluation in the minds of most people, refers to the assessment of what the learner has learnt after a course of instruction. This of course has been the usual practice in African school. The learner is subjected to instruction in any given subject. At the end of the course of instruction (one term, one semester, or one year) the learner is then given a test. His performance in this end-of-course test then determines what happens to him next. If the learner performs badly in the end-of-course test he is blamed; if he performs well his teachers are acclaimed. People who look at the test results are usually neither interested in the factors responsible for learner's success or failure nor in the lessons whihc the teacher and the other persons concerned with education can learn from the learner's performance.

These days evaluation is generally seen as something more all-embracing than what has just been described. Evaluation no longer sees as simply assessing the learner. Even though an assessment of the learner is involved, he is assessed at all times and not simply at the end of a course of instruction. Instead of assessing only the learner present evaluation procedures evaluate, in addition everything that goes into planning, desining and executing a school curriculum. This implies that a wide variety of agencies (curriculum dèvelopers, insepctors, teachers, pupils, the community) is involved in the evaluation. At the same time a wide variety of "thing" (the prevailing situations, the materials, the personnel, the pupils, etc) is also evaluated.

The evaluation of prevailing situations (in the society at large, in the schools, etc) is usually referred to as the evaluation of input (or antecedents). The evaluation of what happens to the inputs (curriculum materials etc) as teachers and others try to use them in schools for the improvements of learning and teaching is usually referred to as the evaluation of processes (or transactions). Assessing how much the learner has profitted from the new curriculum (what specific subject matter knowledge he has acquired, what changes in attitudes, values etc have been observed, etc) is referred to as the evaluation of learning outcomes. Notice that in evaluating outcomes the emphasis is both on the learner's cognitive growth (how mcuh knowledge he has acquired) and on his affective growth. (the extent to which the learner has changed as a person, how his attitudes, interacts, and values have changed as a result of his exposure to the new curriculum).

The evaluation carried out before a programme starts is also usually referred to as diagnostic evaluation. This is because it yields information which helps the curriculum developer, the teacher, and the school administrator to take rational decisions on what should happen next (how to set about the development of a new curriculum, what exactly to do in the classroom, etc.). As the implementation of a curriculum proceeds the type of evaluation carried out is also referred to as formative evaluation. This yields data needed for decision-making on the day-to-day running of the programme (needed changes of improvement of personnel, materials, teaching methods, etc). Towards the end of a programme the evaluator would like to know the extents to which the programme has succeeded (i.e. the extent to which the desired objectives of the programmed has been attained. This is usually referred to as summative evaluation. Whatever information is collected at this phase is again fed into the re-planning, re-thinking. re-making, and re-implementation of the programme.

What the discussion so far has shown is that evaluation is a continous process of systematic collection of information for rational decision-making on every aspect and on every phase of curriculum development. This Unit will attempt to show how the language curriculum developer can collect information in a systematic way to enable him plan language curricula that meets the needs of his society and which are implemented to solve the language learning needs of the learners for whom they are planned and designed. As will the case in UNit IV see how the language curriculum developer can carry out evaluation at each phase.*

5.2. EVALUATION AT DIFFERENT PHASES OF A LANGUAGE CURRICULUM PROJECT

Evaluation at the Pre-Planning and Planning Stages:

Here the language curriculum developer is concerned with finding out:

- what the language situation in the environment for which a language curriculum is to be developed is (what languages exist, who uses them, and when, how "developed" they are, etc.)
- what people's attitudes to each language are (whether or not they would like to learn, how they like to be taught, etc).
- what the situation in the schools really are (whether or not teachers exist, whether or not teachers are trained to reach the language, what materials exist for teaching the language, what the current practices for teaching the language are, etc).
- what exactly the prospective learners are like and what exactly their learning are (their age, sex. general language competence, what exactly they would want to learn, etc.

As was pointed out earlier (see Unit II) a correct assessment of the prevailing situations at this stage would help the language curriculum developer generate objective which are appropriate to the needs of the society

* This is the procedure adopted by A. Lewy: A Handbook of Curriculum Evaluation, IIEP (1977), a book which the reader is advised to consult at all times.

the schools, and the prospective learners. The tasks involved in evaluation during this phase are not easy, particularly if the curriculum developer is working in siolation and in conditions in which resources are severely limited.

Assessing the language situation in the environment is, strictly speaking, the work of the linguist and the researcher in the area of language teaching. Excellent language situation and language teaching surveys exist in Africa. Examples of these are Pierre Alexander's work in the languages of Africa and the East African language surveys already referred to (see Units II and IV). In the French speaking countries of Africa very good work has been done in the areas of language teaching and language situation surveys by the Centres for applied linguistics in Dakar, Abidjan, and Yaounde. There are also journals in Africa devoted exclusively to language and language teaching which contain articles that can be of immsense help to the language curriculum developer. Examples of these are the Journal of the Language Association of Eastern Africa, the Journal of West African Languages, the Sierra-Leone Language Review, and the Nigerian English Studies Association.

In addition to consulting strictly linguistic and language teaching sources the language curriculum developer should carry out his own observations and analysis of situations. He could. for example, find out:

- whether or not the language for he is to develop a curriculum is used in the mass media and for what purpose (for the translation of news items, for feature programmes, etc).
- the geographical coverage of a particular language (this he can do by consulting people in the enviornment and the political map of the country).

- what type of documents already exist for particular languages (dictionaries, the Bible, newspapers, novel, etc).
- the extent to which the native speakers use the language(s) adn for what purposes (this can be done by observing and interviewing people)
- the materials and methods used for teaching a language in the schools (in the case of a language that is already taught in schools). Again this can be done by observing what goes on in schools analysing the content of curriculum materials, and by interviewing teachers and school administrators.
- what particular language skills are mastered by learners and specific levels of instruction and the extent to which each skill has been mastered (the rough-and-ready methods of doing this will be to observe and interview language teachers and pupils; a more elaborate -and more useful - methods is to administer language tests on the learners).
- what the specific group of learners are interested in learning (what skills of languages for what purpose - travelling, writing, buying and selling, etc.)

Evaluation at the Development Stage:

This is taken in this course to include the phase at which the curriculum developer performs the following tasks:

(i) sets out clearly the obejctives of the curriculum being developed (based on the evaluation carried out during the present phase).

(ii) elaborates on the methodology of the new curriculum (what language skills will be emphasised at what level, the balances to be struck between text and non-text materials, the forms of the texts - conversational, straight-foward , prose, etc. -, the amount and type of illustrations, etc.

(iii) works out the outline (and later detailed) content of the language curriculum.

(iv) selects (or identifies) sources of materials already in the existence (published and recorded texts, pictures etc.) which can be used (or adopted for use) in the new language curriculum programme.

v. gets competent persons together to examine the objectives, the content, the methodology, and existing materials as well as to prepare new material for the new language curriculum.

The language curriculum developers work during this phase can be seen as following five consecutive sub-phases. The beginner is advised to proceed in a consecutive manner, as illustrated above. It is however possible for the experienced curriculum developer to carry out a number of the sub-tasks concurrently. Whatever the curriculum developer's procedure evaluation should be built into all the sub-phases.

The objectives set out by the curriculum developer can be shown to other competent persons (a procedure known as expert judgement) to advise on re-wording, deletions, combinations, and additions. They can also be asked to state the extent to which is objective is considered useful/appropriate/necessary/important with particular reference to the needs of the society, the prevailing conditions in te- schools, and the needs, interests, and abilities of perospective learners. Note that "other competent persons" can be (i) the curriculum developer's colleagues, (ii) language teachers (iii) the prospective learners, and (iv) enlightended members of the speech community. As much as possible a cross-section of all possible classes of "other competent persons" should be consulted.

Other aspects of the work done during the phases can also be evaluated. A systematic evaluation of the objectives naturally leads to modifications in the work of this sub-phase. Such modifications will probably filter downwards to the other sub-phases. This helps the task of evaluating these other sub-phases concurrently. Different groups can be set up to take a second look at the content at the methodology and at already/existing materials. When new materials are written by one person (or groups of persons) they should be shown to other persons (or group of persons) to see the extent to which

they are in keeping with the stated objectives and the agreed-upon methodology of teh new language programme. As much as possible the curriculum developer should not wait till the entire curriculum material is assembled before subjecting it to evaluation. If every bit of material is carefully looked into the chances of the entire material meeting the required objectives are further increased.

Evalution at the Try-Out and Revisions Stages:

During these phases the draft language curriculum materials are assembled and used in classroom situations. In the light of the experience gained in classroom situations the materials are then revised, produced, and made ready for large-scale use. The Try-Out Stage is the one during which the most elaborate forms of formative evaluation should take place. Where possible the language curriculum developer should enlist the support of professional educational evaluators during this phase.

Several aspects of the new language curriculum will be evaluated during these phases - the curriculum materials, the teachers who are trying them out and the pupils on whom they are being tried out. With language materials the curriculum developer will be interested in knowing the extent to which the following features are satisfactory:

- the language in which the material is written (its idiomatic correctness, its adoptedness to the level of linguistic and psychological development etc of the learners etc.,)
- the language activities which form the content of the curriculum material (the extent to which these help the acquisition and use of the language to be taught. The extent to which they are likely to interest the learner etc)
- the illustrations (whether or not they are necessary, whether or not they facilitate learning and teaching.
- the print and layout of text materials (the extent to which these are considered attractive to teachers and learners)

- the non-text material (whether or not they are necessary, whether or not they aid teaching or learning and the extent to which they do so.
- the teachers guides (the extent to which they constitute a help,or a hindrance , to the teacher)
- the students workbooks (the extent to which they facilitate learning and teaching - adequacy and appropriateness of language exercise, etc.),
- supplementary readers (the extent to which the language and subject-matter of these are likely to interest the group of learners for whom the curriculum materials are intended, the extent to which they can help the inculculation and reinforcement of reading skills, etc.
- the formative language tests (these should be put at the end of each component of the main course book- the extent to which they test what they are supposed to test, their length, appropriateness of format, etc.

When evaluating language teachers (who are trying out language curriculum materials the curriculum developer will be interested in gathering information on the following:

- their initial training, further training, experience and susceptibility to new ideas on, and approaches, to language teaching;
- the teaching laod and the number of pupils each teacher has to cope with;
- the facilities available for language teaching in the schools and their adequacy;
- the availability-(or non-availability) of other language teachers with whom the teacher can interact;
- the individual teachers teaching skills: the way he present his materials: his resourcefulness (ability to go beyond the textbook, to prepare his lessons adequately, etc)

As much as possible teachers who are trying out language materials should be taught to evaluate the materials they are using and to communicate their findings to other language teachers and curriculum developers.

In evaluating language learners during this phase the curriculum developer will be interested in their perceptions (the way they see) the materials they are using and the instruction they are being subject to. In addition, one would be interested in the progress they are making. That is, in how much language they are learning. The series of formative tests included in the language material will help monitor learner performance, progress, and problems. Inerviews, observations, questionnaires will supply information on learners' attitudes. The information collected from students' progress and reactions is perhaps the greatest indicator of the strength or weakness of a curriculum.

After the curriculum developer had collected data on the new language materials, teachers' reactions to them, teachers' ability to use them, and on learners' reactions to them, he could subject his findings to other competent persons (fellow curriculum developers, language teachers, people who had helped with the writing of materials, etc). Such people should discuss frankly the methods of evaluation the instruments used, the data collected, the way the data was analysed, etc). It is only after such exhaustive discussions (which is itself a form of evaluation) that meaningful revision of the language curriculum material can take place.

Evaluation During the Dissemination and Monitoring Stages

If everything has been well planned during the earlier phases of curriculum development and implementation evaluation during the two "final" phases should be relatively easy. If mistakes have been made in earlier stages they can also be remedied during the "final" phases of the language curriculum programme.

During theese phases the major objectives of the curriculum developer is the continous review and improvement of the total language curriculum, the objectives; the methodology, the materials, the implementation, the teachers, the pupils, the evaluation techniques and procedures, etc. Most of techniques used for evaluation in earlier phases can be useful in the dissemination and monitoring stages also. For example the same cognitive tests, the same observations an questionnaring procedures used in earlier stages modified in the light of earlier evaluation evidence) can be used at the "final" stages as well. The procedures adopted for evaluating the appropriateness of textbooks, non-text materials, and the teaching methods in the other stages (again modified in the light of experience) can be used as well during the dissemination/monitoring phases.

An important aspect of the phases under discussion is the preparation of teachers. This very important activity has also got to be evaluated. The language curriculum developer will have to obtain detailed information on the characteristics of the teachers who are likely to help with task of implementing a new language curriculum. Three main categories of language teachers will be concerned here viz:

- Teachers with inadequate knowledge of the language they are supposed to teach, who lack training on language teaching

- Teachers with adequate language knowledge but who lack training on the principles of language teaching.
- Teachers who have adequate knowledge of the language to be taught and of pedagogy but who are unfavourably disposed through the new language programme.

This means that the teachers to be used for disseminating and moniroring the new language programme will have to be evaluated on:

- adequacy of language knowledge
- adequacy of knowledge of language teaching principles;
- understanding of the philosophy, objectives, content and methodology of the new language programme; and
- attitude towards the new language programme

Our first category of teachers (they are usally in the majority in African countries) would need to be evaluated on all four dimensions. The second category will be evaluated on second, third, and fourth dimensions; the third category or the third and fourth dimensions. The Americans have a test of language proficiency for teachers and advanced students which is used to evaluate the cognitive ability of language teachers. There is need to develop a similar test for use within Africa. The absence of such a test is perhaps not as grave as a problem as persuading teachers to take such a test. The best the curriculum developer can do in such a case is to collect information on (i) the general qualifications of the language teacher, (ii) the number of years spent learning the language (formally), (iii) the extent to which the learner uses the language in everyday situation. In addition one can draw inferences from discussions with individual teachers on how much of the language in quesiton they know.

As much as possible the evaluation of the teachers to be used for the dissemination and monitoring of a language programme should be evaluated at least twice.

A pre-evaluation needs to be carried out before the start of in-service training. This enables the curriculum developer to know the extent of teachers training needs, to group them according to their needs, and to train then in the most appropriate way. At the end of the in-service course, the participants can be subjected a post-evaluation. In short one administered the same evaluation instruments at least twice to the same persons. The amount of improvement in scores between one evaluation session to another is a measure of the extent to which the teachers concerned have gained more knowledge and have improved on their attitudes. It is also an indication of the extent to which the in-service programme has met the needs of the in-service trainees.

At this stage it also pays to give the teachers concerned training in monitoring the programme. This can be done by giving them detailed guidelines on what to look for in the total language curriculum. The following is a suggested list:

(i) The objectives of the language programme as stated (the extent to which they make sense to the teacher)

(ii) The content of the language curriculum (the extent to which the language is idiolistic, the extent to which it can interest the learner, the extent to which the material is correctly sequenced, etc.)

(iii) The methodology of the language curriculum (the extent to which it is close to current thinking on language teaching, the extent to which it is practicable in the classroom, etc.).

(iv) The teachers own teaching and students reaction to teaching (the extent to which teachers enjoy using the material, the extent to which the material makes extra demands on the teacher, the ease and zeal with which children learn the language materail, etc,)

In addition the teacher would need guidance on when to administer the formative tests included in the language material (whether the tests should be done in the classroom, as homework, in gorups, individually, written, oral etc). The teacher also needs guidance on how to interpret the scores (whether a certain average score means re-teaching the entire lesson, re-teaching aspects of it, or going on to the next lessons, etc). Exposing teachers to this type of training has two main advantages. They become better teachers because they are able to look at their teaching critically and to monitor teaching-learning difficulties. They also reduce and simplify the work of the language curriculum developer in that they are better able to help in monitoring the progress of the new language curriculum. In short, the type of training here suggested helps in making the teacher part of an enlarged curriculum audience.

5.3. CONSTRUCTING LANGUAGE EVALUATION INSTRUMENTS

Two major classes of instruments will be discussed in this section - cognitive and affective instruments. Cognitive tests will have to be constructed to tally with the content of instruction at each level of instruction. In other words such tests should be based on what the learners are expected to know. It is also necessary that such tests should cover as mcuh ground (of what the pupils is expected to know) as possible. At the same time they must be within the range of ability of the group of learner's for whom they are meant. The tests must also, as much as possible, be easy to administer and to score. The reader is advised to consult more detailed texts on language testing which explains what we have been saying by stressing that a good test should be valid, reliable, nad economic.

Constructing cognitive tests

For practical purposes the reader is advised to proceed as follows:

1. Make a list of all language skills stressed in the curriculum.
2. Under each language skill make a detailed list of the specific language components taught. In the West and East African Examinations Council French language syllabuses, for example, the Francais Fondamental (Vol.I) is an inventory of the languages components to be taught. By "language components" is meant a complete inventory of the phonological, the structural, and the lixical items taught.
3. Determine the emphasis to be placed on every skill and every language component in the course of instruction. This then determines the relative weight of each aspect of language instruction in testing. For example the instructional time for each result of French in the advanced Teachers' Colleges attached to Ibadan University are as follows (the figures are all percentages)

	YEAR I	YEAR II	YEAR III
1. Oral Work	60	45	30
2. Elements of French Phonetics	-	10	-
3. Linguistics of French	-	-	10
4. Composition	40	30	15
5. Translation	-	-	5
6. Literature	-	15	10
7. Cultural Studies	-	-	
Total	100	100	100

In testing student achievement each component of the course is weighed to the percentage of instruction time (i.e. emphasis) given to it.

4. Show the test you have written to other competent persons and revise them in the light of expert opinion
5. Practice item banking (i.e. keeping good test items well labelled for assembly and use when necessary

Constructing Non-Cognitive Language Evaluation Instruments:

Cognitive evaluation instruments pose a gread deal of problems. First, they are difficult to construct. Second, it is difficult to ensure that the information they yield is reliable. Third, the question they ask of the respondent may mean different things to different people. A good example is when people are asked to indicate whether they speak English always, very often, or sometimes. 'Always' may mean ten hours a day to one respondent and seven hours a day to another. The language curriculum developer should therefore try as much as possible to eliminate the effects of the problems just highlighted in the questionnaire and interview schedules he conducts.

With particular reference to questionnaires designed to obtain peoples feedlings and value judgements on language evaluation programmes the tasks may involve the following:

- obtaining users assessment of a syllabus of a curriculum material;
- assessing learners reactions to a language instructional programme;
- assessing the classroom competence of language teachers;
- asessing the attitudes and motivation of learners, with particular reference to the particular languages being learnt.

The most important step to take in constructing an instrument needed for any of these forms of evaluation is to ensure that instrument is carefully structured. This means that one does not ask questions such as "what is your impression of the new Kiswahili course for Ugandan secondary schools?" Such a question won't be difficult to answer in that the person answering will not be sure of what aspects of the Kiswahili course is being referred to. Structuring an evaluation instrument therefore involves stating precisely these aspects of what is the be evaluated which require emphasis. Continuing with our example of a Kiswahili course one can have a detailed background as follows:

(i) the number of exercises available
(ii) the form of the exercise
(iii) the sequencing of the exercise
(iv) the spacing of the exercise

(v) the level of difficulty of the exercise
(vi) the instructions given to the teacher for the conduct of the exercises.

Note that our instrument has concentrated in only one aspect of the language instructional material, the exercises given to the learner. Each item on the questionnaire then deals with a specific aspect of exercises needed for language practice in learners' books. Those aspects that are selected for inclusion in a questionnaire are those which are considered important by a language curriculum developer and which are meant to help the realisation of the objectives of the curriculum.

The next step in designing a non-cognitive evaluation instrument is to decide on the correct wording of each item. Should they be in statement form or in question form? How is the respondent to be addressed - personally (e.g. YOU) or impersonally? After this one has to decide on the length of the quesionnaire. It is always better to start by writing out as many items as possible and then examine them to see which items are duplications of other items. Such "duplicates" should then be eliminated. One also has to decide on the format of the questionnaire. Several possibilities came readily to mind here. One can have yes/no questions (e.g. Do you enjoy learning French?" Yes/no), or questions that require greater thinking on the part of the respondent e.g.

"Do you enjoy learning French?" Very much/To a certain/Not
No extent sure

Techniques of questionnaire construction are discussed in many standards, general texts on educational evaluation. Each curriculum developer has to practice hard before the construction of questionnaires become a habit. Perhaps the best way to start is to copy questionnaires developed by other people. This can involve wholsesale copying or adpatation of existing instruments with varying degrees of modification. The addenda to this Unit will therefore show examples of cognitive and non-cognitive instruments that can be sued in different areas and aspects of language curriculum evaluation.

5.4. USING EVALUATION DATA FOR IMPROVING AND RENEWING LANGUAGE CURRICULA

Curriculum improvement and Renewal are taken in this Unit to mean one and the same thing. Like many other curriculum development activities these are tasks that are carried out on a continous basis. It was pointed out in Section 5.1. above that evaluation invovle the systematic collection of information needed for rational decision-making on aspects of an educational programme. Improvement and Renewal set in each time one modifies aspects of a given curriculum in light of systematically collected evidence.

As can be seen from the discussion in section 5.2 above, improvement and renewal of a language curriculum can go on during all phases of programme development. In the initial stages, the objectives, the content outline and the methodology of the new curriculum is always subject to modification in the light of expert judgement on their appropriateness. In the later stages the material developed can be shortened, lengthened, re-written, re-illustrated, etc as a result of expert comments on them and as a result of pupils, reaction to them. The strategies for teacher orientatio for teaching the material, and for evaluating learners' progress can also be changed in the light of evaluation data.

It has to be stressed that every new curriculum project arises as a result of people's evaluation of the existin curricula. For example, parent complain that their primary school children cannot read. After a careful st of the situation (see whether or not teaching is sufficinetly emphasised by teachers in the classroom, whether or not the teachers themselves can read, whether or not facilities are available for reading in schools, etc. the curriculum centre starts developing a new language curriculum with sufficient emphasis on reading or preparing teachers adequarely for the teaching of reading, of producing materials that really aid the acquisition and development of reading skills etc.

In short, every curriculum developer (and the working in the areas of languages are no exception) should be well versed in evaluation techniques for evaluation is the starting point and the moving spirit of all curriculum development efforts.

ADDENDA

A. INSTRUMENTS FOR EVALUATION COGNITIVE LANGUAGE SKILLS

1. Listening:

(a) Sound Discrimination (involving the picking out of a sound e.g. the candidate hears
A B C
it est la / elle est ld E il est la -
and indicates by writing A, B, or C in the blank space after the suggested answers which sound he has heard.

(b) Answering Isolated Questions:
At the elementary level of language learning the candidate hears a question and picks from a list of suggested answers which one best answers the question

e.g. The candidate hears "What's your name?" and picks the correct answers from the following options: (A) Mohamed (B) Going away (C) Yesterday.

(c) Answer questions based on a text:
A passage is read to students (they do not see the text) and they do answer questions based on it afterwards. Care should be taken to include mixture of recall and recognition items (i.e. questions for which answer can be got straight from the text) and understanding and thinking items (i.e. those which require the learner to go beyond the text - to think, to draw inferences, etc.)

ii. Speaking: difficult to test; involves individual testing done in other language areas) can be done through (i) reading aloud - the testers taking note of pronounciation mistakes, (ii) structured interview - the testers getting the learner ot talk in specific situations, (iii) exposition - a form of oral composition.

iii. Reading: Same procedure as listening text, except that the passage is read silently by the candidate before he answers the questions asked on it. Reading tests are usually timed as reading speed is also an aspect of comprehension.

iv. Writing: Involves the learners spressing himself in writing (Composition). This can range from varying degrees of acquired (or controlled) writing to free expressing. The degree of guiding (i.e. specify exactly what the candidate should write, the number of words and pages, etc) will vary with the level of the learner. Beginners would require guidance than advanced students. As much as possible compositions should be marked directly (i.e. the tester should work out as a masking scheme specifying the important points to be noted and the marks to be asssigned to each point to reduce subjectivity.

B. INSTRUMENTS FOR EVALUATION NON-COGNITIVE ASPECTS OF A LANGUAGE CURRICULUM

i. Measuring Learners' Language Use

Instructions: This is NOT a test. You are therefore requested to supply the information needed as faithfully as you can. The purpose of the exercise is to collect accurate information on the occasions when people use English and Kiswahili in Da es Salaam secondary schools.

Section A: Background Information

1. Age _____ 2. Sex _____
3. Hihgest Exams passed (a) in Kiswahili
4. Present class _____ (b) in English

Section B: Which of English and Kiswahili would you use in each of te following circumstnaces?

1. In asling for directions in the streets of Dar

2. In asking for the prices of books in a college bookshop _____

3. In asking for a favour from a clerk in the Principals Office _____

4. In reporting an offending student to a tutor _____

5. In reporting to your friends a funny incident in your school _____

6. In explaining a laboratory experiment to a friend who was absent from the exercise _____

II. Measuring Learners Out-of-School Activities Related to a Language being learned

A. Background Information* 1. Age _____ sex _____

3. class _____ 4. Fathers level of education _____

5. Number of brothers and sisters _____

B. Inidcate, by writing an 'X' in the appropriate colum the extent to which uou carry out the following activities

	Always	Quite often	Once in a while	Never
1. have extra lessons in French				
2. listen to French radio broadcasts				
3. attend French club meetings				
4. act in French plays				
5. listen to French music				
6. speak French to your friends after school				

iii. Measuirng Teachers' Assessment of Language Textbooks

A. 1. Title of Textbook _____

2. Class in which it is used _____

3. Name of school _____

* The numnber of items included on in the background section will be dictated by what the evaluator considers important variables.

B. Indicate, by writing an 'X' in the appropriate column the extent to which you consider the following aspects of the textbook in question satisafactory for classroom use

	VERY SATISFACTORY	SATISFACTORY	UNSATISFACTORY
1. The way the language material is presented			
2. The length of the reading passaged			
3. The level of the questions on the reading passages			
4. The explanation of difficult grammatical and vocabulary items			
5. The revision exercises (their appropriateness)			

IV. Measuring Attitudes towards Learning a Particular Language

Write an X in the sapce nearest to the adjective which best expresses your views on learning your native language in school.

In my opinion learning one's own language in school is

1. necessary _____ unnecessary
2. useless _____ useful
3. difficult _____ easy
4. delightful _____ not delightful
5. interesting _____ unintersting

IV. Measuirng Teachers, Language Related Activities

Instruction As in B (ii), (iii), and (iv)

	Always	Quite	Some time	Never
1. Attendances at language teachers association meetings				
2. Reading new books on language and linguistics				
3. Reading new books on language teaching				
4. Writing articles on language teaching expression				
5. Converstation with other speakers of the language				
6. Visits to countries in which the language is used				
7. Reading journals on language teaching				

C. CLASSROOM OBSERVATION INSTRUMENTS

i. A Flaners' Type Instrument

CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES	TALLIES
A. TEACHER ACTIVITY	
1. Models Pronounciation	
2. Asks for Repitition of Model	
3. Allows free speech by pupils	
4. Reads from the language textbook	
5. Writes on the chalkboard	
6. Translates into learners native language	
7. Asks children to recite	
8. Asks children to read	
B. 1. Listens to Teacher	
2. Repeats after the Teacher	
3. Practices new structure in context	
4. Engages in drills with other students	
5. Gazes at the teacher	
6. Asks questions	
7. Answers Teacherss' Questions	
8. Copies from the chalkboard	

Nel Flanders and his associates in the USA developed in Interaction analysis instrument for observing and analysing teacher - pupil classroom verbal interaction. The observer makes a lally (i.e. notes by writing IIIII) every fifteen seconds against the prevalent activity at each stage of a lesson. There have been adaptations of the Flanders model the needs of language classes by Moskovitch and Beckley. The reader can construct his own instrument by getting a list of desirable and undesirable language teacher behaviour and falling to see which of those predominates in the classroom.

ii. A more conventional Instrument

	Excellent	Very. good	Good	Fair	Poor	Very poor
1. The teacher's use of Kiswahili						
2. The teacher's resourcefulness (ability to get use extra material, do extra work, etc)						
3. The teacher's involvement of children						
4. The teacher's emphasis on spoken Kiswahili						
5. The teachers' emphasis on spoken Kiswahili						
6. The teacher's encouragement of learners (being relaxed, smiling, etc).						

iii. Learner Reaction to a Language Lesson*+

1. What I like best about the Reading lesson we have just had is

_____

_____

2. What I do not like at all in the Reading lesson is

_____

_____

_____

* Note that any unconcventional term used is explained so that users of the instrument can speak the same language

** Relatively easy to administer a suitable for young learner's. Can also be used as an interview quide.

3. Next time I would want our teacher to

_____

_____

_____

D. SELF EVALUATION INSTRUMENT*

1. Teachers Self-Evaluation of Language Proficiency

Instruction: Underline the word which best completes each sentence as it applies to you

1. My spoken English is good/fair/poor
2. When two English men speak among themselves, I understand them very readily/not quite readily/with a lot of efforts
3. When a native speaker of English speaks to me I understand him very readily/not quite readily/with a lot of efforts
4. When I read a University textbook in English I understood everything/most of the content/very few things.
5. Writing in English to me is a very easy task/an easy task/ a difficult task

ii. Teachers Self-Evaluation of A Language Lesson**

1. My English was very intelligible/intelligible/not intelligible
2. My explanations were very understood/easily understood/ difficult to understand
3. My qestions were answered readily/answered hesitantly/not answered
4. Learners' mistakes were detected and corrected/detected but/ not corrected
   Neither detected/ nor corrected
5. It appears that the children have learnt a lot/learnt a few things/learnt almost nothing

* Self-evaluations of language proficiency have been known to reflect proficiency as measured by actual tests.

** Such an instrument can be constructed by testing all important aspects of a language lesson. The teacher can use this self mirror to improve his own teaching skills. Useful for for in-service training purposes.

VI. Pupils Self-Evaluation of Language Proficiency

Instructions: 5 is the highest rating and 1 is the lowest
Rate yourself for each ability by underlying what you consider the appropriate figure

1. My ability to make myself understood in English	5	4	3	2	1
2. My ability to understand other speakers of English	5	4	3	2	1
3. My ability to understand radio and television	5	4	3	2	1
4. My ability to read English texts at a reasonable speed	5	4	3	2	1
5. My ability to express myself in written English	5	4	3	2	1
6. My ability to understand straight-foward (non-technical English)	5	4	3	2	1

AFRICAN CURRICULUM ORGANISATION (ACO)

BASIC TRAINING COURSE IN SYSTEMATIC CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

COURSE SIX

ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN LANGUAGES

ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Unit One: Language Situations and Policies in Africa

1.1. What is Language?

D. Crystal: What is linguistics? (Arnold 1974 96p)
The book is divided into three parts
- misconceptions about linguistics and language
- linguistics as "a science of language"
- the uses of linguistics in society

A. Wilkinson: The Foundations of Language (O.U.P. 1971 224)
An introduction to the study of language acquisition. The growth and development of language in the young child

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN LANGUAGES

ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPH

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D. Crystal: What is linguistics? (Arnold 1974 96p)
The book is divided into three parts
- misconceptions about linguistics and language
- linguistics as a "science of language"
- the uses of linguistics in society.

A. Wilkinson: The foundations of language (O.U.P.1971 224p)

An introduction to the study of language acquisition. The growth and development of language in the young child is discussed in tearms of language, thought and the construction of reality, the language environment, capabilities in language, and the development of oracy. The beginnings of reading and the use of certain media and schemes are then considered.

N.A.K. Halliday: Explorations in the functions of language (Arnold 1973. 142p)

Consists of 5 interrelated paper attempting to explain the value of language in functional terms.

Pride,J.B. & Holmes, J.: Socialinguistics, selected readings (Penguin, 1972. 381p)

These readings are divided into four sections: bilingualism and multilingualism, standard language and national language, dialectal and stylistic variation, and acquisition and proficiency.

1.2. The Language Sition in Africa

P. Alexandre: Languages and Language in Africa (1967, Paris, Payot. Translated into English in 1972).

A survey of languages in sub-Saharan Africa with comprehensive data on language classification and distribution.

P.F.D. Kotey & U. Der-Housikian, (ed.): Language and Linguistic Problems in Africa. (proceedings of the VII Conferences on African linguistics). (1977, Hornbeam Press, S. Carolina)

Content: language policies, language and law, phondogy syntax, historical slides, Africanism.

1.3. Language use in various African societies

1.4. Language in education in various African countries

Ladefoged)
Glick) Language in Uganda. (O.U.P., 1971)
Criper)

W.H. Whiteley, ed. Language in Kenya (O.U.P., 1974)

Bender)
Bowen)
Cooper) eds. Language in Ethiopia (O.U.P., 1971)
Ferguson)

S. Ohannessian)
N.E. Kashoki) Language in Zambia
(International African Institute, 1978)

E. Polome)
C.P. Hill) Language in Tanzania
H.D. Barton) (unpublished yet)

These studies on language use and language teaching in Eastern Africa are the result of a survey commissioned by the Ford Foundation. The aim of the survey was to increase knowledge about the function of languages in five East African countries and to produce separate country studies that could serve concrete needs of educational and government planners.

T. P. Jorman, ed.: Language in education in Eastern Africa
(O.U.P. 1970)
Contains papers from the First Eastern Africa Conference on Lanaguage and linguistic: The papers deal with the problems of language teaching in a multibilingual context, of teaching African languages, of choice of the medium of instruction, of the teaching of English and literature. The school levels at which these problems are dealt with range from the primary school to the university.

Unit Two: Preparing Objectives for language curriculum development

J.E. Perren: Education through a second language: the African dilemma: (p.197-207)
(in "Education in Africa*, ed. by R. Jolly,1969)

The author highlights the problems of the effectiveness of learning, of the training of teachers etc. arising from the use of 2nd language as medium of instruction. The danger of restricted access to education to a minority is also mentioned.

P. Strevens: "English in African Education: What kind of English?
(in idem, p. 192-197).

A. Bamgbose: (ed.) Mothertongue education: the West African experience. (1976, Unesco Press).

Describes the developments and the difficulties experienced by different countries in the use of the mother-tongues in a multi-lingual society.

J. Spencer: Language in Africa (Cambridge, 1963)

Papers of the Leverhulme Conference on universities and the language problems of Tropical Africa, held at University College, Ibadan in 1961-2.

Unesco: The use of vernacular language in Education (1953)

Bsed on the Report of the Unesco Meeting of specialists on the Use of Vernacular Languages held in Paris, 1951.
Discuss the nature of language and its relation to education.

Das Gupta: - "Language diversity and national development"
(in "Language problems of developing nationas",
ed. by D. Gupta, Fishman & Ferguson, 1968, N.Y.)

- "Language education and development planning"

M. Hoursis : The problem of the choice of languages in Africa (idem).

C.O. Taiwo : Nigeria: Language problems and solutions. (idem)

The above articles figure in "Prospects" Vo.VI. No.3, 1976 (Unesco), a special volume on "Schooling in the monther-tongue in a multilingual environment".

B. Banathy)
E.C. Trager)
C.D. Waddle)

The use of contrastive data in foreign language course development. (in Valdman (ed). "Trends in language teaching, 1966, Mcgraw-Hill, P.35-57)

The authors discuss an approach which applies up-to-date linguistic principles to the development of foreign language text materials.

S.P. Corder: Introducing applied linguistics.(Penguin 1973.392p)

This book consideres the application of linguistics to language-teaching for practising teachers as well as teachers in training. It is divided into 3 parts:

- language and language-learning
- linguistics and language-teaching
- applications of linguistics to language-teaching

W. N. Rivers: Teaching foreign-language skills
(University of Chicago Press, 1968. 404 p)

This book is written for those preparing to be foreign-language teachers as well as for practising teachers. There is detailed treatment of the teaching of the four language skills and a theoretical discussion of the linguistic and pedagogical background for these.

W. Rivers: Speaking in many tongues: essays on foreign-language teaching
(Massachusetts, 1972. 148p)

A collection of essays which discusses some of the significant developments in language teaching methodology.

Allen, J.P.B, Corder S.P. : The Edinburg Course in Applied linguistics: Vol.3: Techniques in Applied linguistics. (O.U.P. 1974. 384p)

The ten chapters of the book can be used in planning and carrying out teaching programmes, and cover: the background to course design, practical phonetics and phonology, pedagogic grammar, language-lab.,materials, error analysis, reading and writing, stylistics, programmed instruction, audio-visual materials in language-teaching, constrastive analysis, and language testing.

Unit Three:

Selecting and preparing materials for language curriculum development

Wilkins, D.A.: Notional syllabuses. (O.U.P.1976,92p)

This book draws a comparison between synthetic and analytic approaches, giving a modified framework of categories and exploring the implications of notional syllabuses in various language-learning environments.

Billows, F.L.: The techniques of language-teaching
(Longmans 1961 - 259 p)

This book describes, from the point of view of the practising teacher, the techniques of language-teaching. The techniques are not based on theoretical considerations alone but on solutions tried and evolved in the classroom.

Johnson, F.C.: English as a second language: an individualised approach.

Systematically describes the relation between theories of second-language acqusition, classroom techniques and instructional materials.

Moody, K.W. & Gibbs, P.: Teaching structures in situations
(African universities Press 36p)

Covers ways of teaching through real, contrived, planned and improvised situations in which substitution tables are built up from bare sentences.

Logan. G.E. : Individualised foreign language:An organic process:
(Massachussets. 1973. 136p)

Summarises the practical aspects of using individualized processes in a classroom, and discusses logistic problems involved in a classroom of 30 and more pupils.

McCree, U.: From controlled to creative writing
(African Universities Press. 1969. 78p)

A personal account of the development of a writing-skills syllabus at a post primary institution in Nigeria.

Corder, S.P. The visual element in language teaching (Longman, 1966. 96p)

Offers a nationale for the use of visual methods in the teaching of language.

Wright,A. : Visual materials for the language teacher (Longman 1976. 152 p)

The emphasis of this book is on the multiplicity of junctions for visual materials in language-learning. The author examines the underlying theories of their use and goes on to describe their practical application in the curriculum.

McGregor, G.P. English in Africa. (Heinemann, 1971, 214 p)

A guide to the teaching of English as a second language, with particular reference to the post primary school stages.

Additional list for Unit 2 & 3

Widdowson, U.G. Teaching language as Communication (Oxford Univ.Press, 1978, 168p)

Francis, Hazel: Language in teaching and learning (Allen Univ.,1977 139p)

Hamlyn, D.W.: Experience and the growth of Understanding (Routledge & Keegan, 1978. 159p)

Menyuk, P.: Language and Maturation (M.I.I. Press, 1977. 180p)

Robinson, P. : Language management in education (Allen & Unwin, 1978. 200p)

Bunke, S.T.: The complete mother-tongue curriculum (Longman, 1977. 261p)

Snow, C.E. & Ferguson, C.A.: Language input and acquisition (Cambridge Univ.Press, 1977. 369p)

Bernstein, B.(et.al.) : Class, cods, control. (3 Vol.) (Routledge & Keegan Paul)

Marcus, M.: Diagnostic teaching of the language arts (Wiley, 1977. 545p)

Unit Five

Evaluation and Renewal of Language Curriculum Projects

Clarke J.L.D. : Foreign Language testing theory and practice

(Philadelphia, 1972. 174p)

This survey of language-testing field comes from a staff-member of the American Educational Testing Service. Examples are drawn from European languages other than English.

Davies, A. (editor) Language-testing symposium
(O.U.P. 1968. 222p)

Eleven papers dealing with: subjective and objective testing, the linguistics of language testing, the psychology of language testing, oral English-testing in West Africa, etc.

Harris, D.P. Testing English as a second language
(McGraw-Hill, 1969. 151)

A concise introductory text intended to enable the language teacher both to improve his own classroom measures and to assess standardised tests he may be asked to select, adminster and interpret.

Jones, R.L. & Spolsky, B. (editors): Testing Language Proficiency
(C.A.L., Virginia 1975. 146p)

A collection of papers presented at the Language Testing Symposium in 1974.

Lado, R.: Language-testing: the construction and use of foreign language tests. (Longman 1961.389p).

Provides an introduction to language-testing. Much of the underlying theory is now considered outmodel, but in its essentials the book is still relevant.

Palmer, L. & Spolsky, B. (editors) Papers on language-testing 1967-1974: Tesol, Washington 1975. 227p)

This collection includes five papers delivered at the International Seminar on Language Testing, San Juan, Puerto Rico, in 1973 and 22 papers on Language-testing. Selected from "TESOL Quarterly".

Wood, R. & Skurnik, I.S.: Item-banking. (National Foundation for Educational Research in England & Wales. 1969. 184p).

A thorough study of the systems and difficulties of maintaining a bank of items.